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A NEW

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GRAMMAR;

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE SEVERAL

KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

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By WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.

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Engraved by Mr. KITCHIN, Geographer.

THE SECOND EDITION.

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THE

PREFACE.

TO a man ſincerely intereſted in the welfare of ſociety and of his country, it muſt be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progreſs, and general diffuſion of learning and civility, which, within the preſent age, have taken place in Great-Britain. Whatever may be the caſe in ſome other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this iſland, may boaſt of our ſuperiority to thoſe illiberal prejudices, which not only cramp the genius, but ſour the temper of man, and diſturb all the agreeable intercourſe of ſociety. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the ſchools of the philoſophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greateſt advantages which heaven has beſtowed on mankind, it is become as univerſal as it is uſeful.

This general diffuſion of knowledge is one effect of that happy conſtitution of government, which, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, was confirmed to us, and which conſtitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people poſſeſs little wealth, have little power, and conſequently meet with little reſpect; in Great-Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of courſe, a proper ſhare of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their ſtudies; as the great body of the people, no leſs than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amuſed and inſtructed. Books have been diveſted of the terms of the ſchools, reduced from that ſize which ſuited only the purſes of the rich, and the avocations of the ſtudious; and adapted to perſons of more ordinary fortunes, whoſe attachment to other purſuits admitted of little leiſure

for thoſe of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that ſuperior improvement, which diſtinguiſhes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and advance this improvement, is the principal deſign of our preſent undertaking. No ſubject appears more intereſting than that we have choſen, and none ſeems capable of being handled in a manner that may render it more generally uſeful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the ſublimeſt purſuit of mankind, it muſt be allowed, is that which moſt nearly intereſts them, and to which their abilities are beſt adapted. And Books of Geography, which deſcribe the ſituation, extent, ſoil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, ſciences, and arts of all the inhabitants upon earth, promiſe the beſt aſſiſtance for attaining this knowledge.

The Compendium of Geography, we now offer to the public, differs in many particulars from other books on that ſubject. Beſides exhibiting an eaſy, diſtinct, and ſyſtematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance, an inſtructive, though compendious detail of the general hiſtory of the world. The character of nations depends on a ſucceſſion of a great many circumſtances which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a ſtate, than moſt people ſeem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural geography, no one of thoſe objects ſhould paſs unnoticed. The omiſſion of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only intereſting in itſelf, but which is abſolutely neceſſary for enabling us to form an adequate

adequate and comprehenſive notion of the ſubject in general. We have thought it neceſſary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the hiſtory and preſent ſtate of learning, in the ſeveral countries we deſcribe, with the characters of ſuch perſons as have been moſt eminent in the various departments of letters and philoſophy. This ſubject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requiſite, when we conſider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. Theſe objects, indeed, till of late, ſeldom found a place in geographical performances; and, even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or inſtructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting ſolely under the influence of avarice, the paſſion which firſt induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill-qualified to collect ſuch materials as are proper for gratifying our curioſity, with regard to theſe particulars. The geographer then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information upon ſuch ſubjects. In the courſe of the preſent century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirſt for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into diſtant lands. Theſe they have explored with a philoſophic attention; and by laying open the internal ſprings of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and ſtriking picture of human manners, under the various ſtages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifeſt impropriety, we could not but avail ourſelves of their labours, by means of which, we have been enabled to give a more copious, and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In conſidering the preſent ſtate of nations, few circumſtances are of more importance than their mutual intercourſe. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the œconomy of modern ſtates, and of which therefore we have never loſt ſight in the preſent undertaking.

We are ſenſible that a reader could not examine the preſent ſtate of nations with much entertainment or inſtruction, unleſs he was alſo made acquainted with their ſituation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have aſſumed their preſent form and appearance. This conſtitutes the hiſtorical part of our Work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Inſtead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of news-paper occurrences, occurrences no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only ſuch facts as are intereſting, either in themſelves, or from their relation to objects of importance. Inſtead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the hiſtory of each country, ſuch an epitome as may be read with equal pleaſure and advantage, and which may be conſidered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the antient names of countries, and in treating of their particular hiſtory ſometimes carried our reſearches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it neceſſary, for the ſatisfaction of ſuch readers as are unacquainted with claſſical learning, to begin our hiſtorical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inſerting an account of the antient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader, of comparing together not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they now appear, but

as

as they ſubſiſted in antient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the hiſtory of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatiſe extant.

In the execution of our deſign, we have all along endeavoured to obſerve order and perſpicuity. Elegance we have ſacrificed to brevity. Happy to catch the leading features which diſtinguiſh the characters of nations, and by a few ſtrokes to hit off, though not completely to finiſh, the picture of mankind in antient and modern times.

What has enabled us to compriſe ſo many ſubjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omiſſion of many immaterial circumſtances, which are recorded in other performances of the ſame kind, and of all thoſe fabulous accounts or deſcriptions which, to the diſgrace of the human underſtanding, ſwell the works of geographers; though the falſity of them, both from their own nature and the concurring teſtimony of the moſt enlightened and beſt-informed travellers and hiſtorians, be long ſince detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or leſs diffuſe, according to their importance to us as men, and as ſubjects of Great-Britain. Our own country, in both reſpects, deſerved the greateſt ſhare of our attention. Great-Britain, though ſhe cannot boaſt of a more luxuriant ſoil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and ſuperior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the miſtreſs of the world: theſe are, the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political conſtitution, and the moderation of her religious ſyſtem. With regard to the Britiſh empire we have therefore been ſingularly copious.

Next to Great-Britain, we have been moſt particular upon the other ſtates of Europe; and always in proportion as they preſent us with the largeſt field for uſeful

reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, an important ſyſtem of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thouſand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an extended, unreſtrained commerce.

Europe having occupied ſo large a part of our volume, Aſia next claims our attention; which, however, tho' in ſome reſpects the moſt famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or inſtruction. In Aſia, a ſtrong attachment to antient cuſtoms, and the weight of tyrannical power, bears down the active genius of the inhabitants, and prevents that variety in manners and character, which diſtinguiſhes the European nations. The immenſe country of China alone, renowned for the wiſdom of its laws and political conſtitution, equally famous for the ſingularity of its language, literature, and philoſophy, deſerves to be conſidered at ſome length.

In Africa, the human mind ſeems degraded below its natural ſtate. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country immerſed in rudeneſs and barbarity, beſides that it could afford little inſtruction, would be diſguſting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and ſciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, diſcover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy ſameneſs almoſt every where prevails; and the trifling diſtinctions which are diſcovered among them, ſeem rather to ariſe from an exceſs of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But tho' theſe quarters of the globe are treated leſs extenſively than Europe, there is no diſtrict of them, however barren or ſavage, intirely omitted.

America, whether conſidered as an immenſe continent, inhabited by an endleſs variety of different people,

or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deſerves very particular attention. The bold diſcovery, and barbarous conqueſt of this new World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects, which, together with the deſcription of the country, deſervedly occupy no ſmall ſhare of this performance.

In treating of ſuch a variety of ſubjects, ſome leſs obvious particulars, no doubt, muſt eſcape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures ſketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuſe imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extenſive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, inſiſt upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are new, and corrected with care, will, we hope, afford ſatisfaction. The ſcience of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from thoſe who are alone capable of giving it, ſtill remains in a very imperfect ſtate; and the exact diviſions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical ſurveys, are far from being well aſcertained. This conſideration has induced us to adopt the moſt unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables; which, if they give not the exacteſt account, afford at leaſt a general idea of this ſubject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical ſcience arrives at greater perfection. They are, beſides, recommended by their brevity; and the making uſe of them has enabled us to introduce ſome ſubjects more neceſſary in this undertaking than the minute diviſions of countries, whoſe boundaries and ſituations we are yet little acquainted with.

Thus

Thus far the original Preface, with reſpect to the deſign and general plan of the work, which a few months ago made its firſt appearance in one very large octavo volume, cloſely but diſtinctly printed.

Tho' the book was chiefly intended for ſchools, and the more uninformed part of mankind, we have the pleaſure to find, by the rapidity of its ſale, and the univerſal approbation it has met with, that it has attracted the notice of thoſe who are beſt able to judge of the execution, and, contrary to the general fate of modern publications, has already found a place in the libraries of the learned.

One advantage it certainly poſſeſſes, which few hiſtorical productions can boaſt of—Throughout the whole, the Author ſeems to have diveſted himſelf of political, religious, and national prejudices; and where he diſcovers any biaſs, it is always in favour of civil and religious liberty.

The ſmallneſs of the type of the firſt edition, tho' extremely proper for ſchools, and young people, has however prevented many, who are more advanced in life, from becoming purchaſers. It was therefore judged neceſſary to give the public an edition on a larger type, and conſequently in two volumes, which enables us to accommodate every claſs of readers.

The preſent edition likewiſe appears with ſeveral other advantages. The ſcientific part of the work has been corrected and improved throughout by JAMES FERGUSON, F. R. S. The hiſtorical and miſcellaneous parts have gone through the hands of ſome gentlemen of diſtinguiſhed abilities, and the different articles, or heads, are more methodically arranged.

The ſame attention has been given to the maps, which are newly engraved at a very conſiderable expence by the firſt artiſt in this kingdom, who, being chiefly employed in executing the lateſt ſurveys, has availed himſelf of many new diſcoveries, and is thereby enabled to enrich this Work with the moſt correct Atlas hitherto publiſhed.

INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

Of Astronomical Geography.

SECT. I.

THE ſcience of Geography cannot be compleatly underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. But the ſcience which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called Aſtronomy. Hence the neceſſity of beginning this work with an account of aſtronomy, or of the heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is that glorious luminary the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the ſeveral planets which move round it, and which, together with the ſun, compoſe what aſtronomers have called the Solar Syſtem. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſix planets which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their nearneſs to the center, or middle point of the ſun, are as follow: Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun) are called inferior planets, or, perhaps more properly, interior or inner planets; the three laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called ſuperior, or, perhaps more properly, exterior or outer planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, ſuppoſe our earth, moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt do it. We ſhall only therefore particularly conſider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall ſet down with ſuch explications as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

The earth, upon which we live, was long conſidered as one large extenſive plane. The heavens, above it, in which the ſun, moon, and ſtars appeared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it, and to be only deſigned for the uſe or ornament of our earth: ſeveral reaſons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needleſs to mention them, becauſe we have

now

now a ſufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have actually ſailed round it: as from that of Magellan's ſhip, which was the firſt that ſurrounded the globe, ſailing eaſt from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame, after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving around a ball of wax.

The roundneſs of the earth being thoroughly eſtabliſhed, proves the way for the diſcovery of its motion. For while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding on pillars, though they could not tell what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by conſidering, that if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets muſt move round the earth. Now, as philoſophers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to gueſs pretty nearly at the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, juſt as every body that knows the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it; it appeared, that if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in the 24 hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way, and that the earth, in the ſpace of 24 hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, the inhabitants on the ſurface of it, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time of 24 hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us eaſily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the ſun. For as that luminary ſeems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its

axis,

axis, ſo in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it compleats in the time of a year. Now as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

This much being ſaid with regard to the motion of the earth, which the ſmalleſt reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, we muſt obſerve, before exhibiting our table, that beſide the ſix planets already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are other ten bodies which move round three of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, and Saturn has five: theſe are all called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was firſt attended to; and ſometimes they are called ſecondary planets, becauſe they ſeem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter and Saturn, about which they move, and which are called primary.

There are but two obſervations more neceſſary for underſtanding the following table. They are theſe: we have already ſaid that the annual motion of the earth occaſioned the diverſity of ſeaſons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit; becauſe then the ſame parts of the earth would be turned towards the ſun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful viciſſitude of the ſeaſons, ariſing from the difference in length of the days and nights. This therefore is not the caſe—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by ſuppoſing a ſpindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the ſpindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards ſome quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the ſpindle to the ground. The ſame obſervation applies to ſome of the other planets, as may be ſeen from the table. The only thing that now remains, is to conſider what is meant by the mean diſtances of the planets from the ſun. In order to underſtand which, we muſt learn that the orbit, or path which a planet deſcribes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the ſhape of a figure called an ellipſe, which, though reſembling a circle, is longer than broad.

broad. Hence the ſame planet is not always at the ſame diſtance from the ſun, and the mean diſtance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greateſt and leaſt diſtance. Here follows the table.

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the ſeveral Planets in the Solar Syſtem.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in Engliſh miles.	Mean diſtances from the ſun, as determined from obſervations of the tranſit of Venus in 1761.	Annual periods round the ſun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of Axis to orbit.
			y. d. h.	d. h. m.			
Sun	890,000			25 6 0		3,818	8° 0′
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown.	109,699	unknown	unkn.
Venus	9,330	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75° 0′
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23° 29′
Moon	2,180	ditto.	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2° 10′
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0° 0′
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0° 0′
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	22 167 6	unknown.	22,101	unknown	unkn.

The reader having obtained an idea of the ſolar ſyſtem from this table, and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his reflection to what are called the fixed ſtars, which comprehend the luminaries above our heads that have not been explained. The fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo extremely ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar, and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other, as the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which include all the fixed ſtars which are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night without moonſhine they ſeem to be innumerable, which

is

is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner, yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the antients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can be ſeen at a time by the bare eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the introduction of teleſcopes indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered as immenſe; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſtead, royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars, which is the moſt compleat that has hitherto appeared. The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and one another, is of all conſiderations the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 162 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 162 millions of miles further removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſequently the biggeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of theſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having worlds revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun, and as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. The motion of light therefore, which though ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us, than we do in making a Weſt-India voyage. A ſound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars, being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have; nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us. For the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render theſe objects viſible by reflexion. The ſtars therefore ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a

particular portion of ſpace, it is plain that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is no ways probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from one another, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy *, and a mean opinion of the Divine Wiſdom: ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, *that* ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed, by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſea-ſhore. The ſpace they poſſeſs being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarce be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although Saturn, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 4884 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions upwards of ten thouſand millions of miles beyond Saturn's orbit; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars; as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the Sun's attraction.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom contrived, ſituated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. For although there is almoſt an infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through and connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole!

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from one another, as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes that the ſun is; each to beſtow light, heat, and

* Eſpecially ſince many more ſtars require the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope to find them out, than are viſible without that inſtrument, and therefore inſtead of giving light to this world, they can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

and vegetation on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What an auguſt! what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thouſands of thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity.

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole!

The firſt people who paid much attention to the fixed ſtars, were the ſhepherds in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly from amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in their travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, each of which they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in our own country do the ſame thing, for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation which philoſophers call the Urſa Major, by the name of the plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent with a very little help from the fancy. But the conſtellations in general have preſerved the names which were given them by the antients; and they are reckoned 21 northern, and 12 ſouthern: but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern to 34, and of the ſouthern to 31. Beſide theſe there are the 12 ſigns or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word ſignifying an animal, becauſe each of theſe 12 repreſent ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time, we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe, progreſs, and revolutions in aſtronomy.

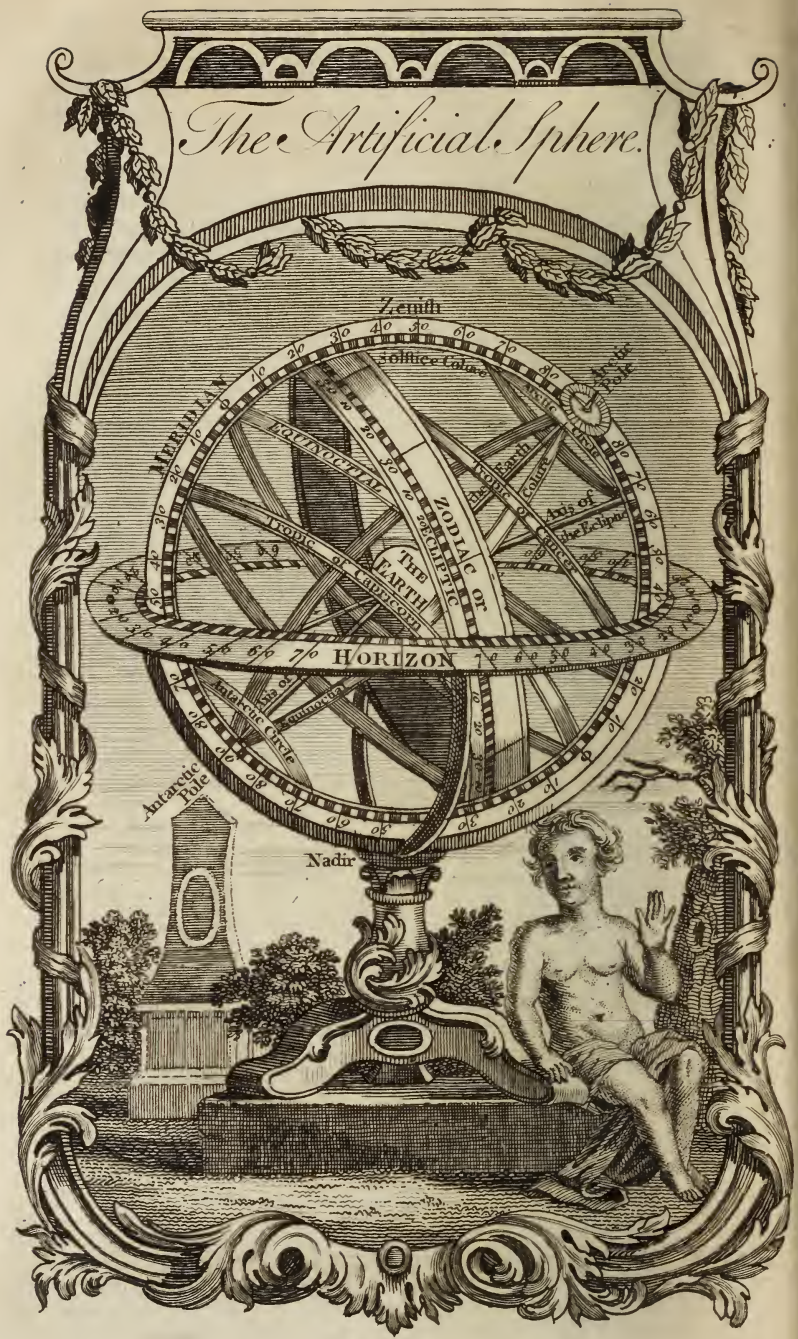
Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of ſenſe and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not fixed and immoveable. We find accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about 600 years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had gone ſo far in this ſubject as to calculate eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon betwixt the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the

ſun and the moon (the nature of which may be eaſily underſtood, from what we have already obſerved.) Pythagoras, a Greek philoſopher, flouriſhed about 50 years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way, to give a conſiſtent account of the heavenly motions. This ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to all the prejudices of ſenſe and opinion, that it never made great progreſs, or was widely diffuſed in the antient world. The philoſophers of antiquity deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, ſet themſelves to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the caſe with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed 138 years before Chriſt. He ſuppoſed, with the vulgar, who meaſure every thing by themſelves, that the earth was fixed immovably in the center of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the chryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, laſt of all, the cœlum empyrium, or heaven of heavens. All theſe vaſt orbs he ſuppoſed to move round the earth once in 24 hours; and beſides that, in certain ſtated or periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles called excentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with one another. This ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the Peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe, from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean, or true ſyſtem of the univerſe; and publiſhed it to the world in 1530. This doctrine had been ſo long in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe, however, was ſtill immerſed in ſenſe and ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with thoſe of a refined philoſophy. This occaſioned Copernicus to have few abetters, but many opponents. Tycho Brache, in particular, a noble Dane, ſenſible of the defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem of his own, which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the center of its orbit; and it makes the

ſun


The Artificial Sphere.
Zenith
Solstice Colure
Arctic Pole
MERIDIAN
EQUINOCTIAL
Tropic of Cancer
ZODIAC or ECLIPTIC
THE EARTH
Tropic of Capricorn
Axis of the Earth
Axis of the Ecliptic
HORIZON
Antarctic Circle
Antarctic Pole
Nadir

ſun to be the center of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, however, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem however, abſurd as it was, met with its advocates. Longomontanus and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of a great many ages, the firſt dawn of learning and taſte began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which diſcovered new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy indeed had almoſt checked this flouriſhing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem, as a damnable hereſy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed the one half of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the ſcriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a much nobler purpoſe, to make us juſt, virtuous, and humane: that inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which in ſpeaking of natural things ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God himſelf, in tracing the nature of his works, which the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called Gravity, or Attraction, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder.

SECT. II.

Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the univerſe in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the Doctrine of the Sphere, which ought always to be premiſed before that of the globe

or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next Section. In handling this ſubject, we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears that it is the *real* motion of the earth, which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes, which always lead us to conceive the matter in this way. The imagination therefore is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar, and in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to. N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere, on the oppoſite page.

The antients obſerved that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours: that the circles, which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth, being the largeſt of all, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved that there were two points in the heavens, which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to turn round them. In order to imitate theſe motions, they invented what is called the Artificial Sphere, through the center of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an Axis, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called Poles. They farther obſerved, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle deſcribed by the ſun, was at an equal diſtance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, muſt divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the Equator or Equaller. It was alſo called the Equinoctial Line, becauſe the ſun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having alſo obſerved that from the 21ſt of June, to the 22d of December, the ſun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence he ſet out from 22d of December, to the 21ſt of June; they fixed theſe points which they called Solſtices, becauſe the direct motion of the ſun was ſtopped at them; and repreſented the bounds of the ſun's motion, by two circles, which they named Tropicks, becauſe the ſun no ſooner arrived there than he turned back. Aſtronomers obſerving the motion of the ſun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the Ecliptic, and it

paſſes

paſſes through certain conſtellations, diſtinguiſhed by the names of animals, in a zone called the Zodiac. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one ſide, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely. To expreſs this motion they ſuppoſed two points in the heavens, equally diſtant from, and parallel to this circle, which they called the Poles of the Zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, deſcribe the two polar circles. In the artificial ſphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called Colures, which ſerve to mark the points of the ſolſtices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients alſo obſerved that, when the ſun was in any point of his courſe, all the people inhabiting directly north and ſouth, as far as the poles, have noon at the ſame time. This gave occaſion to imagine a circle paſſing through the poles of the world, which they called a Meridian, and which is immoveable in the artificial ſphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle repreſenting the bounds betwixt the two hemiſpheres, or half ſpheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

SECT. III.

The Doctrine of the GLOBE naturally follows that of the SPHERE.

BY the Doctrine of the Globe is meant the repreſentation of the different places and countries, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Now the manner in which geographers have repreſented the ſituation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the ſphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to aſtronomers, there was nothing more eaſy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the ſituation of places was determined, according as they lay on one ſide of the equator or another. The ſame may be obſerved of the other circles of the ſphere above-mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded, may proceed to conſider this doctrine itſelf, or in other words, the deſcription of our earth, as repreſented by the artificial globe.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though in ſpeaking of the earth, along with the other planets, it was ſufficient to conſider it

as a ſpherical or globular body: yet it has been diſcovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a ſphere or ball, is not perfectly ſo. This matter occaſioned great diſpute between the philoſophers of the laſt age, among whom Sir Iſaac Newton and Caſſini, a French aſtronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Iſaac demonſtrated from mechanical principles, that the earth was an oblate ſphere, or that it was flatted at the poles or north and ſouth points, and jutted out towards the equator; ſo that a line drawn through the center of the earth, and paſſing thro' the poles, which is called a Diameter, would not be ſo long as a line drawn thro' the ſame center, and paſſing thro' the eaſt and weſt points. The French philoſopher aſſerted quite the contrary. But the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who ſent out a company of philoſophers towards the north pole, and likewiſe towards the equator, in order to meaſure a degree, or the three hundred and ſixtieth part of a great circle in theſe different parts; and from their report, the opinion of Sir Iſaac Newton was confirmed beyond diſpute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles, than towards the equator. The reaſon of this figure may be eaſily underſtood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Now this is exactly the caſe, with regard to our earth, only that its axis, repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe or ball, without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table we have exhibited, page 14, the diameter of the globe is given, according to the beſt obſervations: ſo that its circumference is 25,038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of meaſuring, to be divided into three hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and an half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The Axis of the Earth is that imaginary line paſſing through its center, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the Earth; one in the north, and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles

is of great use to the geographer, in determining the distance and situation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; so that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator, and contrariwise, in removing from the poles you approach the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] These are commonly divided into the greater and lesser. A great circle is that whose plane passes through the center of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemispheres. A lesser circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot pass through the center of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are six in number, the lesser only four.

EQUATOR.] The first great circle we shall speak of is the Equator, which we have had occasion to hint at already. It is called sometimes the Equinoctial, the reason of which we have explained; and by navigators it is also called the Line, because, according to their rude notions, they believed it to be a great Line drawn upon the sea from east to west, dividing the earth into the northern and southern hemispheres, and which they were actually to pass in sailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It passes through the east and west points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and southern hemispheres. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, the use of which will soon appear.

HORIZON.] This great circle is represented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers very properly distinguish the horizon into the sensible and rational. The first may be conceived to be made by any great plane on the surface of the sea, which seems to divide the heavens into two hemispheres, the one above, the other below the level of the earth. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eastern edge, we say they rise, and when they go beneath the western, we say they are set. It appears then that each place has its own sensible horizon. The other horizon, called the rational, encompasses the globe, exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane, as those of all circles are) are called the Zenith and Nadir; the first exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it: of these the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the Zodiac (of which hereafter) viz. thirty to each sign. Next to this

you have the names of these signs. Next to this the days of the month according to the old style, and then according to the new style. Besides these there is a circle, representing the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compass. The use of all these will be explained afterwards.

MERIDIAN.] This circle is represented by the brass ring, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; so that counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eastern and western hemispheres. This circle is called the meridian, because when the sun comes to the south part of it, it is then meridies or midday, and then the Sun has its greatest altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the sun is never in its meridian altitude, at two places east or west of one another, at the same time, each of these places must have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.] The Zodiac is a broad circle, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve signs above-mentioned are represented. In the middle of this circle is supposed another called the Ecliptick, from which the sun never deviates in his annual course, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve signs are,

1. Aries ♈ —— March	7. Libra ♎ — September
2. Taurus ♉ —— April	8. Scorpio ♏ — October
3. Gemini ♊ —— May	9. Sagittarius ♐ November
4. Cancer ♋ —— June	10. Capricorn ♑ December
5. Leo ♌ —— July	11. Aquarius ♒ January
6. Virgo ♍ —— August	12. Pisces ♓ —— February.

COLURES.] If you imagine two great circles passing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points Cancer and Capricorn, these are called the Colures, the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solstitial Colure. These divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are denominated according to the points which these pass through, viz. the four cardinal points, and are the first points of Aries, Libra, Cancer and Capricorn; and these are all the great circles.

TROPICS.] If you suppose two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes distance from it, measured on the brasen meridian, and one towards the north, the other towards the south, these are called Tropics, because the sun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former course. The one is called the Tropic

of

of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through theſe points.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The northern is called the Arctick, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear, the ſouthern, the Antarctick, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the four leſſer circles. Beſide theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others, which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it. Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time, without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The main deſign then of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth, in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus after it was diſcovered, that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay on the north, or ſouth ſide of the equator. Beſides, after the four leſſer circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called Zones or Belts, from their partaking of breadth. That part of the earth between the Tropics, was called by the antients the Torrid or Burnt Zone, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſarts. This notion however has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls, than all the reſt of the earth together. In ſhort, the countries of Africa, Aſia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all reſpects the moſt fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two temperate zones are compriſed between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, becauſe meeting the rays of the ſun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

heat. The two frigid zones lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are incloſed within the polar circles. They are called the Frigid or Frozen, becauſe moſt part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen ſo long as the ſun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However theſe zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much leſs fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all theſe zones is thoroughly diſcovered by the Europeans. Little is known to us of the ſouthern temperate zone, and though ſome iſlands and ſea coaſts in the northern frigid zone have come to our knowledge, we have none at all of the ſouthern frigid zone. The northern temperate, and torrid zones, are thoſe we are beſt acquainted with.

CLIMATES.] But the diviſions of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the diſtances between one place and another. This however is ſtill more neceſſary; becauſe it is of more importance to mankind, to know the ſituation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what is called Climates. It was obſerved that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longeſt day encreaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The antients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the Latitude of the place, from the greateſt length of the day from that place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator. And as they called the ſpace contained between theſe circles, Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called Climatical Parallels. This therefore was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe, though, as we ſhall ſhew, the deſign which firſt introduced it, may be better anſwered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt 24, the days encreaſe by half hours, but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the poles, the days encreaſe by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe; in the mean time we ſhall inſert a table, which will ſerve to ſhew in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator to be known.

Cli.	Latitude. D.	M.	Breadth. D.	M.	Long. Day. H.	M.	Names of countries and remarkable places situated in every climate north of the Equator.
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the firſt Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coaſt in Africa; Malacca, in the Eaſt-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam, in Terra Firma, S. Amer.
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here lie Abyſſinia, in Africa; Siam, Madraſs, and Pondicherry, in the Eaſt-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the W. Ind.
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca, in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the Eaſt-Indies; Canton, in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in N. America; Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtophers, Antego, Martinico, and Guadalupe, in the Weſt-Indies.
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands, in Africa; Delly, capital of the Mogul Empire, in Aſia; Gulph of Mexico, and Eaſt Florida, in N. America; the Havanna, in the Weſt-Indies.
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean ſea; the Barbary coaſt, in Africa; Jeruſalem; Iſpahan, capital of Perſia; Nankin, in China; California, New Mexico, Weſt Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in N. America.
6	41	22	4	54	15		VI. Liſbon, in Portugal; Madrid in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Aſia Minor; part of the Caſpian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, in China; Corea and Japan; Williamſburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in N. America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; ſouthern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Conſtantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caſpian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boſton in New England, N. America.
8	49	01	3	32	16		VIII Paris, Vienna, cap. of Germany; New-Scotland, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. Amer.
9	52	00	2	57	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden; Cracow, in Poland; ſouthern provinces of Ruſſia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.
10	54	27	2	29	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Labrador, and New South-Wales, in N. Amer.
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moſcow, cap. of Ruſſia.
12	58	29	1	52	18		XII. South part of Hudſon's Bay, in N. America.
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Iſles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	61	18	1	20	19		XIV. Bergen, in Norway; Peterſburg, in Ruſſia.
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudſon's ſtraits, N. America.
16	63	22		57	20		XVI. Siberia, and the ſouth part of W. Greenland.
17	64	06		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64	49		43	21		XVIII. Part of Finland, in Ruſſia.
19	65	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Ruſſia.
20	65	47		22	22		XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21	66	06		19	22	30	XXI. Northern parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	66	20		14	23		XXII. New North Wales, in N. America.
23	66	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's ſtraits, in ditto.
24	66	31		3	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67	21			1 Month		XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48			2 Months		XXVI. Weſt-Greenland.
27	73	37			3 Months		XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis.
28	78	30			4 Months		XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	05			5 Months		XXIX. Spitzbergen or Eaſt Greenland.
30	90				6 Months		XXX. Unknown.

The diſtance of places from the equator, or what is called their Latitude, is eaſily meaſured on the globe, by means of the meridian above deſcribed. For we have only to bring the place, whoſe latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and will be exactly over the place. Now this is the manner alluded to, by which the diſtance of places from the equator, is moſt properly diſtinguiſhed; but it could not be adopted, until the figure and circumference of the earth were known, after which it was eaſy to determine the number of miles in each 360th part or degree of this circumference, and conſequently know the latitude of places. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or ſouthern, and the nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, becauſe the poles, where they terminate, are at that diſtance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers ſuppoſe a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The interſection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, ſhews the true ſituation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The longitude of a place is its ſituation with regard to its meridian, and conſequently reckoned towards the eaſt or weſt; in reckoning the longitude there is no particular ſpot from which we ought to ſet out preferably to another, but for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the moſt weſterly of the Canary Iſlands, was conſidered as the firſt meridian in moſt of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be ſo many degrees eaſt or weſt of the meridian of Ferro. Theſe degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, becauſe the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that diſtance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like thoſe of latitude, but diminiſh in proportion as the meridians incline, or their diſtance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and ſo of the reſt. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are ſet down in the following table.

A TABLE SHEWING

The Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	63	52	37	00	82	08	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	79	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	51	96	60	30	00	90	00	00

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we ſhall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of theſe degrees into miles, according to the table above given, and remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or $69\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh, we ſhall be able exactly to determine the diſtance between any places on the globe.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The Diſtance of Places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly ſouth, north, eaſt, or weſt, from one another, may be meaſured in a readier way, by extending the compaſſes from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For inſtance, extend the compaſſes from Guinea in Africa, to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the diſtance to be 25 degrees, which at 60 miles to a degree, makes the diſtance 1500 miles.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to ſupply the place of the compaſſes in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of braſs, ſcrewed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the diſtances and bearings of places are meaſured without the trouble of firſt extending the compaſſes between them, and then applying the ſame to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a ſmall braſs circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROB. I.] *THE diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its ſurface in ſquare, and its ſolidity in cubic meaſure.*

Multiply the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the ſaid product by one fixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and

every where of the ſame height; for having found the perpendicular height thereof, by that common experiment of the aſcent of Mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter by its proper circumference, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituate, as that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing their variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this, ſee the preceding page.

PROB. 4. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the chalk is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The latitude of any place being given, to find all thoſe places that have the ſame latitude.*

The globe being rectified (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

(*a*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon; and over-againſt the day you will find the particular ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time, which ſign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The month and day being given, as alſo the particular time of that day, to find thoſe places of the globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the given place, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and

ſetting

ſetting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. which done, fix the globe in that ſituation, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian, for thoſe are the places deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

Elevate the pole (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place; find the Sun's place in the ecliptic (*b*) at that time, which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and whereſoever the index pointeth, reckon the number of hours between the ſame and the upper figure of 12; for that is the length of the day, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the length of the night.

(*a*) PROB. 2.
(*b*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 9. *To know what a clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the ſame time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raiſed (*c*) according to the latitude thereof, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the preſent hour at that place wherever it is.

(*c*) PROB. 3.

PROB. 10. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find thoſe two days of the year in which the Sun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the Sun's annual motion) on what days he paſſeth through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic, for thoſe are the days required in which the Sun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The month and day being given, to find by the globe thoſe places of the North Frigid Zone, where the Sun beginneth*

neth then to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting; as alſo thoſe places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.

The day given, (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the autumnal equinox and winter ſolſtice) find (*a*) the Sun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the Sun's place in the ecliptic, ſetting a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the ſaid chalk are thoſe in which the Sun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north; then marking with chalk, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark are thoſe where the Sun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

(*a*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 12. *A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the Sun doth conſtantly ſhine upon the ſaid place, and what days he is abſent, as alſo the firſt and laſt day of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and obſerving its latitude (*b*) elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian from each ſide of the equator as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; firſt for the northern arch of the circle, namely that comprehended between the two degrees remarked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the Sun doth conſtantly ſhine above the horizon of the given place; and the oppoſite arch of the ſaid circle will in like manner give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point out which days thoſe are. And in the interval he will riſe and ſet.

(*b*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 13. *The month and day being given, to find thoſe places on the globe, to which the Sun, when on the meridian, ſhall be vertical on that day.*

The Sun's place in the ecliptic being (*a*) found, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, in which make a ſmall mark with chalk, exactly above the Sun's place. Which done, turn the globe, and thoſe places which have the Sun vertical in the meridian, will ſucceſſively paſs under the ſaid mark.

(*a*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 14. *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compaſs the Sun then riſeth and ſetteth in any place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and finding the Sun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and you may there clearly ſee the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſeth. By turning the globe about till his place coincide with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon the ſaid circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the globe the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt days and nights in any part of the world.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or Capricorn if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the ſign of Cancer touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index, for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement whereof is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. As for the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night, they are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16. *The hour of the day being given in any place, to find thoſe places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour at the ſame time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn about the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is midday at the time given. Which done, turn the globe about till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and what places are then in the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time

time given, by moving the globe till the index point at the hour desired, and observing the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The day and hour being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.*

The Sun's place in the ecliptic (*a*) being found and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the same with chalk; then (*b*) find those places of the earth in whose meridian the Sun is at that instant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, observe narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the foresaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.

(*a*) PROB. 6.

(*b*) PROB. 16.

PROB. 18. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all those places where the Sun is then rising, or setting, or on the meridian; consequently, all those places which are enlightened at that time, and those which are in the dark.*

This problem cannot be solved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour circle fixed upon the brass meridian; unless the Sun be on or near some of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joseph Harris's invention, where the hour-circle lies on the surface of the globe, below the meridian, it may be solved for any day in the year, according to his method; which is as follows.

Having found the place to which the Sun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemisphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the southern hemisphere, elevate the south pole accordingly; and bring the said place to the brazen meridian. Then, all those places which are in the western semicircle of the horizon, have the Sun rising to them at that time; and those in the eastern semicircle have it setting: to those under the upper semicircle of the brass meridian, it is noon; and to those under the lower semicircle, it is midnight. All those places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the Sun, and have the Sun just as many degrees above them, as they themselves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the Sun is vertical; and then, laying it over any other

place, obſerve what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all thoſe places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index be ſet to the upper XII or noon, and then the globe be turned round eaſtward on its axis; when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-riſing at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-ſet.

To thoſe places which do not go under the horizon, the ſun ſets not on that day: and to thoſe which do not come above it, the Sun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The month and day being given, with the place of the Moon in the zodiac and her true latitude, to find thereby the exact hour when ſhe ſhall riſe and ſet, together with her ſouthing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

The Moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily enough at any time by an ordinary almanac; and her latitude, which is her diſtance from the ecliptic, by applying the ſemicircle of poſition to her place in the zodiac. For (*a*) PROB. 2. the ſolution of the problem (*a*), elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and the Sun's place in the ecliptic at that time (*b*) PROB. 6. being (*b*) found and marked with chalk, as alſo the Moon's place at the ſame time, bring the Sun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, then turn the globe till the Moon's place ſucceſſively meet with the eaſtern and weſtern ſide of the horizon, as alſo the brazen meridian, and the index will point at thoſe various times the particular hours of her riſing, ſetting and ſouthing.

PROB. 20. *Two places being given on the globe, to find the true diſtance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true diſtance from each other, reckoning every degree to be $69\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh miles.

PROB. 21. *A place being given on the globe, and its true diſtance from a ſecond place, to find thereby all other places of the earth that are of the ſame diſtance from the given place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the ſaid place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon, upon the ſaid quadrant, the given diſtance between the firſt and ſecond place, provided the ſame be under 90 degrees, otherwiſe you muſt uſe the ſemicircle of poſition, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the ſaid quadrant or ſemicircle quite round upon the ſurface of the globe, all places paſſing under that mark, are thoſe deſired.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator, have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the firſt meridian interſects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth do equally enjoy the benefi the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived oft of

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each, at all times of the year. For although the ſun declines alternately, from the equator towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial: for, in all elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt) one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer that any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary. The circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heaven every 24 hours,

being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequally in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of theſe places, at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination) all theſe places will keep equally long above or below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For, there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the neareſt tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the fartheſt tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But, at all other times of the year, he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon: and when the ſun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of theſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern tropic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern tropic; and none ſo little above it, and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere, the contrary.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting; and at the oppoſite time of the year without riſing; becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole, theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward to the ſame port again, let her take what time ſhe will to do it in, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one compleat day at their return, or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off a part proportionable to their own motion, from the length of every day, they will gain a compleat day of that ſort at their return; without gaining one moment of abſolute time more than is elapſed during their courſe, to the people at the port. If they ſail weſtward they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſaid port, becauſe by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above their horizon, as anſwers to that day's courſe; and by that means, they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever; they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the Earth are two, the land and water. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmus's, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents, (beſides the iſlands) viz. the eaſtern and weſtern continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-weſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa, (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over) on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, 60 or 70 miles broad.

A continent is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An iſland is a ſmaller part of land, quite ſurrounded by water, as Great-Britain. A peninſula is a tract of land every where ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece: and that neck of land which ſo

joins it, is called an iſthmus; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Aſia; the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A promontory is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a cape; as the cape of Good-Hope. A coaſt or ſhore is that part of a country which borders on the ſea-ſide. Mountains, vallies, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of, and deſcribed in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulphs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe) viz. the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian Ocean. The Atlantic or Weſtern Ocean, divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific, divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The ocean is a great and ſpacious collection of water, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. The ſea is a ſmaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A lake is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A ſtrait is a narrow part of the ſea, reſtrained or lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a ſound; as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A gulph is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſage whereby it is communicated with the ſea or ocean. If a gulph be very large, it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean: if it do not go far into the land, it is called a bay; as the Bay of Biſcay: if it be very ſmall, a creek, haven, ſtation, or road for ſhips; as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription, for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, like thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of land and water we have deſcribed, it may be proper to obſerve, that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them.

The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean, an iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulph or inland ſea. A promontory, or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of ſea: and an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined,

reſembles

reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another. To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correſpond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial content of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, which ſhall be placed as they are ſubordinate to one another in magnitude.

	Square Miſes.
The Globe	199,512,595
Seas and unknown Parts	160,522,026
The Habitable World *	38,990,569
Europe	4,456,065
Aſia	10,768,823
Africa	9,654,807
America	14,110,874
Perſian Empire under Darius	1,650,000
Roman Emp. in its utmoſt height	1,610,000
Ruſſian	3,303,485
Chineſe	1,749,000
Great Mogul	1,116,000
Turkiſh	960,057
Preſent Perſian	800,000
Iſlands. Borneo	228,000
Madagaſcar	168,000
Sumatra	129,000
Japan	118,000
Great Britain	72,926
Celebes	68,400
Manila	58,500
Iceland	46,000
Terra del Fuego	42,075
Mindinao	39,200
Cuba	38,400
Java	38,250

Iſlands.	Square Miles.
Hiſpaniola	36,000
Newfoundland	35,500
Ceylon	27,730
Ireland	27,457
Formoſa	17,000
Anian	11,900
Gilolo	10,400
Sicily	9400
Timor	7800
Sardinia	6600
Cyprus	6300
Jamaica	6000
Flores	6000
Ceram	5400
Briton	4000
Socatra	3600
Candia	3220
Porto Rico	3200
Corſica	2520
Zeland	1935
Majorca	1400
St. Jago	1400
Negropont	1300
Teneriff	1272
Gotland	1000
Madeira	950
St. Michael	920

Iſlands.	Squ. Mls.
Skye	900
Lewis	880
Funen	768
Yvica	625
Minorca	520
Rhodes	480
Cephalonia	420
Amboyna	400
Orkney Pomona	324
Scio	300
Martinico	260
Lemnos	220
Corfu	194
Providence	168
Man	160
Bornholm	160
Wight	150
Malta	150
Barbadoes	140
Zant	120
Antigua	100
St. Chriſtopher's	80
St. Helena	80
Guernſey	50
Jerſey	43
Bermudas	40
Rhode	36

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finiſh the doctrine of the earth, without conſidering Winds and Tides, from which the changes that happen on its ſurface principally ariſe.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where ſurrounded by a fine inviſible fluid, which extends to ſeveral miles above its ſurface, and is called Air. It is found by experiments,

* The number of inhabitants computed at preſent to be in the known world at a medium, taken from the beſt calculations, are about 953 millions.

Europe contains	153	Millions
Aſia — —	500	
Africa — —	150	
America — —	150	
Total	953	Millions

experiments, that a ſmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, ſo as to fill a very large ſpace, or to be compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs than it occupied before. The general cauſe of the expanſion of air is heat, the general cauſe of its compreſſion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmoſphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreſſed. But when air is put in motion, we call it wind in general; and a breeze, gale, or ſtorm, according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion. Winds therefore, which are commonly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt-wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the Trade Wind. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which in moving from eaſt to weſt heats, and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream, or tide of air, always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt-wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan; which is to mention facts rather than theories.

It is likewiſe found, that in ſome parts of the Indian ocean, which are not more than two hundred leagues from land, there are periodical winds, called Monſoons, which blow half the year one way, and half the year another way. At the changing of theſe monſoons, which always happen at the equinoxes, there are terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, wind and rain. It is diſcovered alſo, that in the ſame latitudes, there is another kind of periodical winds, which blows from the land in the night and good part of the morning, and from the ſea about noon, till midnight; theſe however do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows always from the weſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the winds blow conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great-Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual

calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and such rains, that this sea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

TIDES.] By the tides is meant that regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the Tides remained in obscurity till the immortal Sir Isaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonstrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the solar system, by which they mutually draw or attract one another, in proportion to their distance, it follows, that those parts of the sea which are immediately below the moon, must be drawn towards it, and consequently wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the sea will be raised, which occasions the flowing of the tide there. A similar reason occasions the flowing of the tide likewise in those places where the moon is in the nadir, and which must be diametrically opposite to the former; for in the hemisphere farthest from the moon, the parts in the nadir being less attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate less towards the earth's center, and consequently must be higher than the rest. Those parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards those places to maintain the equilibrium; to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow, twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is about the times of new and full moon, and are called Spring Tides; for at these times the actions of both the sun and moon are united, and draw in the same straight line, and consequently the sea must be more elevated: at the conjunction, or when the sun and moon are on the same side of the earth, they both conspire to raise the waters in the Zenith, and consequently in the Nadir; and at the opposition, or when the earth is between the sun and moon, while one occasions high water in the Zenith and Nadir, the other does the same. The tides are less than ordinary twice every month, about the first and last quarters of the moon, and are called Neap Tides; for in the quarters the sun raises the waters where the moon depresses them, and depresses where the moon raises them; so that the tides are only occasioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is nearest

us,

us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands, and continents, which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the ſituation of ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects, which have a ſhare in producing them.

There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the Ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from north to ſouth. A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the Sound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides riſe very little, but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

MAPS.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the Globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The Globe truly repreſents the earth, but a map no more than a plane ſurface can repreſent one that is ſpherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of ſeveral of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall very much ſhort of the globe for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps, if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe itſelf.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand, oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or lines of longitude; and from ſide to ſide, parallels of latitude. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtances, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which ſhews that London is 210 miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without

meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs amd moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is ſcarce a greater variety in any thing than this ſort of meaſures; not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary, in the different provinces, and all commonly from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile, and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries compared with the Engliſh by Dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Ruſſian vorſt is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ Engliſh.

The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile is nearly 1 Engliſh.

The Arabian, antient and modern, is about 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ Engliſh.

The Scotch and Iriſh Mile is about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.

The Indian is almoſt 3 Engliſh.

The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.

The German is more than 4 Engliſh.

The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.

The French common League is near 3 Engliſh, and

The Engliſh marine League is 3 Engliſh miles.

PART II.

OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the antient names of countries, and even ſometimes, in ſpeaking of theſe countries, carried our hiſtorical reſearches beyond modern times; it was thought neceſſary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to place before his eye a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world, to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates, which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant; but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which

which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſibly requiſite to the underſtanding of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

It appears in general, from the firſt chapters of Geneſis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous, that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and were become highly licentious in their morals and behaviour. Their irregularity gave occaſion to a memorable cataſtrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were ſwept from off the face of the earth. The deluge produced a very conſiderable change on the ſoil and atmoſphere of this globe, and gave them a form leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which hath ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge, the repeopling of the world, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founders of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendants. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter-Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts, and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity univerſally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow creatures, and to found at Babylon the firſt monarchy, whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. That theſe events ſhould have happened ſo ſoon after the deluge, whatever ſurprize it may have occaſioned to the learned ſome centuries ago, need not in the ſmalleſt degree excite the wonder of the preſent age. We have ſeen, from many inſtances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how ſpeedily mankind encreaſe

Before Ch. 3044.

2640.

creaſe when the generative faculty lies under no reſtraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extenſive than thoſe of Babylon, Nineveh and Egypt, during this early age; and yet theſe kingdoms are not ſuppoſed to have exiſted four centuries before the diſcovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God, was obliterated or obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a choſen people. 2026. From this period the hiſtory of antient nations begins a little to expand itſelf; and we learn ſeveral particulars of very conſiderable importance.

Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties before they ſet themſelves to oppreſs and deſtroy one another. Chaderlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Perſians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, muſt not have been very conſiderable, ſince, in one of theſe expeditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſhold, ſet upon him in his retreat, and after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged, by a famine, to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occaſion to Moſes to mention ſome particulars with regard to the Egyptians, and every ſtroke diſcovers the characters of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is deſcribed in the moſt brilliant colours. He is ſurrounded with a crowd of courtiers, ſolely occupied in gratifying his paſſions. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been ſo juſtly admired for their wiſdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many ſucceſſive princes, who laboured for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, the firſt principles 1833. of civil order and regular governments ſeem to have been tolerably underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts or ſeparate departments; councils, compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs; granaries for preſerving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age, enjoyed a commerce far from inconſiderable. Theſe facts, though of an ancient date, deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians, that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down

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in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the preſent inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, till the time of Ninus, king of Nineveh, who, by the ſplendour of his actions, reflects light on this dark hiſtory. Fired by the ſpirit of conqueſt, he extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominion, and lays the foundation of that monarchy which, under the name of the Aſſyrian empire, kept Aſia under the yoke for many ages.

The hiſtory of Europe now begins to dawn. Javan, ſon of Japhet, and grandſon of Noah, is the ſtock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands in the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, from whence it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not paſs over into Europe. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceeded a colony from Egypt, who, about the time of Abraham, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of
2025. Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans ſoon fell aſunder; and the antient Greeks, who were at this time the moſt rude and barbarous people in the world, again fell back into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration on the manners of its inhabitants. The moſt antient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know extremely little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful.

But the hiſtory of God's choſen people, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according
1794. to the Septuagint verſion, 1794 years before Chriſt.

This is a pretty remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they

they have hardly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us view this period then in another point of view, and consider what we can learn from the sacred writings, with respect to the arts, manners and laws of antient nations.

It is a common error among writers on this subject, to consider all the nations of antiquity as being on the same footing with regard to those matters. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in that situation. They discover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wisdom of the first ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the antient world, in points of art and refinement, as between the civilised kingdoms of modern Europe and the Indians in America or Negroes on the coast of Africa. Noah was, undoubtedly, acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world; these he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their posterity. Those nations therefore who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, and who had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor was possessed of, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made considerable improvements in the arts which are most subservient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the first ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is hardly to be supposed that the antient cities, both in Asia and Egypt, whose foundation as we have already mentioned, ascends to the remotest antiquity, could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations who live by hunting or pasturage only, lead a wandering life, and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and though we cannot trace the steps by which it was introduced among the antient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, ascertain the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be pretty considerable, before the metals come to be considered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of an antient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness: and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abram gave silver, the metal is weighed in

preſence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice went into diſuſe, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a parti ular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abram. The reſitah, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears, from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Iſmaelites and Medianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, reſembling the modern caravans, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt chronology, was a native of Arabia Felix, and cotemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans who ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude, that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were conſiderably improved in arts and refinement; for few people think of luxuries until the uſeful arts have made high advancements among them.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea; which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity who ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce; they were diſtinguiſhed by a word which in the Hebrew tongue ſignifies merchants, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phenicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they ſet themſelves to better their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object; and with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they paſs for the inventors of whatever is ſubſervient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his laſt words to his children: and if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of ſuch remote antiquity, the Phenicians had by this time navigated

gated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, supposes the knowledge of several others; astronomy, for instance, or a knowledge of the situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and so of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, several nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to measure by them the duration of their year. It had been an universal custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or seven days: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations who led a pastoral life, or who lived under a serene sky, to observe that the various appearances of the moon were compleated nearly in four weeks: hence the division of a month. Those people again who lived by agriculture, and who had got among them the division of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of these brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons: hence the origin of what is called the lunar year, which has every where taken place in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of the fixed stars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, must have been very antient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the solar year, which at that time would be thought an immense improvement in astronomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyptians and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a frightful spectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeness and every elegant art, were descended from a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes to one another. This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. The descendants of Noah, who removed at a great distance from the plains of Sennaar, lost all connection with the civilised part of mankind. Their posterity became still more ignorant; and the human mind was at length sunk into an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect that, from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity: this, however, is far from being the case; we only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear intirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninius, who succeeded Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in 2122.

the hiſtory of this empire for no leſs than eight hundred years. The ſilence of antient hiſtory on this ſubject is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of a wiſe prince paſs unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonder-
2341. ful abilities, is ſuppoſed about this time to have mounted the throne of Egypt. By his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very conſiderable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris and his immediate ſucceſſors, was in all probability the moſt powerful kingdom upon earth, and according to the beſt calculation is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But antient hiſtory often excites, without grati-
760. fying our curioſity; for from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Boccharis, we know not even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a very flouriſhing condition, for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learning
1582. and politeneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpire after wiſdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece, with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civiliſe the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what ſituations they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and without all knowledge
1532. of thoſe to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civiliſing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form
1522. and regularity. This engaged Amphiction, one of thoſe uncommon geniuſes who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live and the admiration of poſterity, to think of ſome expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politicks the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions

which

which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. Theſe reflections he communicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preſervation. Two deputies from each of theſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictionic Council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy was diſcuſſed and finally determined. Amphiction likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictions the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed in it. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire.

Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictionic council is perhaps the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind. The Greek ſtates, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the community. The firſt of theſe was the obſcure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine Sea, and to eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other antient writers, that ſeveral ſail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, long toſſed about upon different coaſts. The rocks, at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the Euxine ſea, occaſioned great labour: they ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This is expreſſed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their ſending out a bird which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Æon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, conſidering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not leſs conſiderable than the circum-

1292.

navigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition, to that against Troy, which was undertaken
1218. to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in power and opulence: no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. These vessels, however, were but half decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus considered the state of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumstances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our present undertaking, because it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progress of government, arts, and manners, which compose so great a part of our present work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable re-
1260. semblance between the political situation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans or tribes was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with one another, and sometimes with their sovereign. Such a situation was in all respects extremely unfavourable: each particular state was in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphiction. They required the hand of another delicate painter to shade the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, which, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus, king of Attica, had acquired
1257. a flourishing reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He saw the inconveniencies to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed, and he conceived that by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain, and

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even to encreaſe his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans: he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them: he aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither ſtrangers from all quarters, by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed this city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendor of Athens and Theſeus now totally eclipſed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, by being diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy, of which we have a diſtinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which in a ſhort time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes; the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many privileges on the two other ranks of perſons. This plan of politicks was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. 1095.
Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more remarkable, as it happened almoſt at the ſame time that the Jews became unwilling 1079.
to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like unto other nations.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time, aſſumed the republican form.

Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phenicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days, however, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of ſeven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the examples of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politicks of the Greeks, deſerve our principal attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleaſant to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians, by aboliſhing the name of king, did not intirely ſubvert the legal authority: they eſtabliſhed a perpetual
1088. magiſtrate, who, under the name of Archon, was inveſted with almoſt the ſame rights which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians, however, in time, became ſenſible that the archonic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued therefore three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the archonſhip in the ſame hands, was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been eſtabliſhed, increaſed
694. in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a freſh reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed for this office. Theſe magiſtrates were not only choſen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. Theſe alterations were too violent not to be attended with ſome dangerous conſequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the moſt unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens, and it was impoſſible that the antient cuſtoms of the realm, which were naturally ſuppoſed to be in part aboliſhed, by the ſucceſſive changes in the government, ſhould ſufficiently reſtrain the tumultuary ſpirits of the Athenians, in the firſt flutter of their independance. This engaged the wiſer part of the ſtate, who began to prefer any ſyſtem of government to their preſent anarchy and confuſion, to caſt their eyes on Draco, a man of

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an auſtere but virtuous diſpoſition, as the fitteſt perſon for compoſing a ſyſtem of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, but executed it with ſo much rigour, that in the words of an ancient hiſtorian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiſcriminate puniſhment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe. Affairs again returned into confuſion and diſorder, and remained ſo till the time of Solon. The gentle manners, diſintereſted virtue, and wiſdom more than human, by which this ſage was diſtinguiſhed, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the moſt important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was aſſigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he ſhould undertake it. At length, however, the motives of public utility overcame all conſiderations of private eaſe, ſafety, and reputation, and determined him to enter on an ocean pregnant with a thouſand dangers. The firſt ſtep of his legiſlation was to aboliſh all the laws of Draco, except thoſe relating to murder. The puniſhment of this crime could not be too great; but to conſider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual, by means of its ſeverity. Solon next proceeded to new model the political law; and his eſtabliſhments on this head, remained among the Athenians, while they preſerved their liberties. He ſeems to have ſet out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen ſhould have an equal political importance, was a ſyſtem of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible into practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four claſſes, according to the wealth which they poſſeſſed, and the pooreſt claſs he rendered altogether uncapable of any public office. They had a voice however in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould in the words of Plutarch, like a ſhip with too many ſails, be expoſed to the guſt of folly, tumult, and diſorder, he provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the aſſembly of the people; the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained a prodigious aſcendant in the republic, by the wiſdom and gravity of its members, who were not choſen, but after the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny, and moſt ſerious deliberation. 594.

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Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other antient republicks were eſtabliſhed. To inſiſt on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedemon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great lines of it at leaſt ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this ſort. Sparta, like the other ſtates of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. At length, the two
1072. brothers Euriſthenes and Proiles, getting poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years. The Spartan government, however, did not take that ſingular form
870. which renders it ſo remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus, agreed with that already deſcribed, in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and in general in all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independance. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was ſufficiently circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution aroſe from this, that in all his laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war, as to political liberty. With this view, all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in ſhort, which had the ſmalleſt tendency to ſoften the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbid the uſe of money, they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks capable to bear arms, were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone war was a relaxation, rather than a hardſhip, and they behaved in it with a ſpirit of which none but a Spartan could even form a conception. In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect under one point of view the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt caſt our eye on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe great empires, of which we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have already mentioned in what obſcurity
762. 528. the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Baccharis. From this period, to the diſſolution of their government, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wiſ-

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dom of their laws, and political inſtitutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sardanapulus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglecting the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Beleſis, governor of Babylon, conſpire againſt their ſovereign, ſet fire to his capital, and divide between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway in Aſia, till Cyrus the Great reduced this quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. The manners of this people as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, however, that we ſhould enter on the ſame detail upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, ſufficient examples of monarchical government; but how few are our republics? But the æra of Cyrus is in one reſpect extremely remarkable, becauſe with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences, and if poſſible diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements, which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety.

767.

536.

The taſte for the great and magnificent, ſeems to have been the prevailing character of theſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works, which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from

from Cairo, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying places of the antient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and two thouſand ſix hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. It was a ſuperſtition among this people, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death, the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body, ſuch vegetables as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as theſe ſuperſtitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably ſecure a ſafe, and comfortable retreat for their ſouls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that indeed they were ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but totally devoid of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the conſtructing of vaults. The arts, in which theſe nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their principal attention on aſtronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phenomena of the univerſe, or indeed in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the abſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them, during the lateſt periods of their government. The countries which they occupied, were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the neceſſaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accuſtomed to a civilized and poliſhed life in great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbarity, and of conſequence, brave and warlike. This was ſtill more eaſy in the infancy of the military art: when ſtrength and courage were the only circumſtances which gave the advantage to one nation over another, when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times have been diſcovered to be ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy, and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The history of Persia, after the reign of Cyrus, offers little, when considered in itself, that merits our regard: but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly interesting. The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exercise these virtues, which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's institutions: Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, when the lust of universal empire, which never fails to torment the breast of tyrants, led Darius to send forth his numerous armies into Greece. 520. But the Persians were no longer those invincible soldiers, who under Cyrus had conquered Asia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and servitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whose minds were nobly animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. His countrymen, Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not, however, fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the noblest monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over servitude, deserve to be read at length in antient writers.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with two million one hundred thousand men, 484. and being every where defeated by sea and land, escaped to Asia in a fishing boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks, so well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and "woe, that wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks "around for happiness in vain." Though the Persian war concluded gloriously for the Greeks, it is, in a great measure, to this war, that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. 463. It was not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired an immensity of Persian gold; it was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connection with the Persians, after the conclusion of it, which subverted the Grecian establishments, and ruined the most virtuous confederacy that ever existed upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another: their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded

ceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the
431. Athenians and Lacedemonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip, king of Macedon, (a country till his time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful) rendered himself the absolute master
338. of Greece, by the battle of Cheronæa. But this conquest is one of the first we meet in history, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his schemes so deep, and by bribery, promises and intrigues, gained over such a number of considerable persons in the several states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue, which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal orators, in most of their states, were bribed into the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more seductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of winning their affections.

Philip had proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long survive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians and Thebans. These made a feeble effort for expiring liberty. But they were
330. obliged to yield to superior force. Secure on the side of Greece, Alexander set out on his Persian expedition, at the head of thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. The success of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in overrunning and subduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been described by many authors both antient and modern, and constitutes a singular part of the
323. history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives rise to a number of æras and events, too complicated for our present purpose, and even too unintersting. After considering therefore the state of arts and sciences in Greece, we shall pass over to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple, and also more important.

The bare names of illuſtrious men, who flouriſhed in Greece, from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the higheſt pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of this glorious day. Though the eaſtern nations had raiſed magnificent and ſtupendous ſtructures, the Greeks were the firſt people in the world, who in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Epheſian Diana, are the firſt monuments of good taſte. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who ſettled in Aſia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, is the firſt ſculptor whoſe works have been immortal. Zeuxis Parrhaſius and Timantheus, during the ſame age, firſt diſcovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Compoſition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Homer, the tragic poets Æſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the firſt conſiderable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave ſimplicity and elegance to proſaic writing. Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demoſthenes, to diſcover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not however in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every ſpecies of philoſophy was cultivated among them with the utmoſt ſucceſs. Not to mention the divine Socrates, whoſe character has had the honour to be compared with that of the great founder of our religion; his three diſciples, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Xenophon, may for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of ſentiment, and propriety of expreſſion, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long courſe of years, has taught us many ſecrets in nature, with which theſe philoſophers were unacquainted, and which no ſtrength of genius could divine. But whatever ſome vain empirics in learning may pretend, the moſt learned and ingenious men, both in France and in England, have acknowledged the ſuperiority of the Greek philoſophers, and have reckoned themſelves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expreſſion. But the Greeks were not leſs diſtinguiſhed for their active than for their ſpeculative talents. It would be endleſs to recount the names of their famous ſtateſmen and warriors, and it is impoſſible to mention a few without doing injuſtice to a greater number. War was firſt reduced into a ſcience by the Greeks. Their ſoldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from a

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dread of their ſuperiors. We have ſeen the effect of this military virtue in their wars againſt the Perſians: the cauſe of it was the wiſe laws which Amphiction, Solon, and Lycurgus, had eſtabliſhed in Greece. But we muſt now leave this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important, as their territory was inconſiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe.

753. The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme inſignificance. But when we conſider him as the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions, that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall, but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours, and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandize themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate, whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any conſiderable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans, by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both theſe maxims, by means of which the Roman ſtate arrived at ſuch a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons, diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice,

juſtice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers: and after a long reign ſpent in promoting the civil or military intereſts of his country, was, according to the beſt conjecture, treacherouſly put to death by the members of that ſenate, which he himſelf had inſtituted. 715.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all very extraordinary perſonages. Numa, who came next to him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign, for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. 510. As the Romans however were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprizes. In the room of the kings therefore they appointed two annual magiſtrates called Conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the power of their ſovereigns. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The conſuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignalizing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour by every conſideration which could excite them: that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be ſurprized, that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power all over Italy. 264.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had been founded on the coaſt of the Mediterranean in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phenicians, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides

that of Africa, which she almost entirely possessed, she had extended herself on the Spanish side, through the straights. Thus mistress of the sea, and of commerce, she had seized on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itself; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not
264. to take up arms. Hence a succession of hostilities between these rival states, known in history by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was a truckling state; but she was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used
260. it for a model, in three months fitted out a fleet, and the consul Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpose to mention all the transactions of these wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being taken prisoner in Africa, he is sent back on his parole to negotiate a change of prisoners. He maintains in the senate, the propriety of that law, which
255. cut off from those who suffered themselves to be taken, all hopes of being saved, and returns to a certain death.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal the Carthaginian, was the most inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred against the Romans, and having settled the intestine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inspire his son, though but nine years old, with his own sentiments. For this purpose he ordered a solemn sacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his son to the altar, asked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition against the Romans; the courageous boy, not only consented to go, but conjured his father by the gods present, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will swear upon the altars, to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied, and the solemnity of the ceremony, and the sacredness of the oath, made such an impression upon his mind, as nothing afterwards

afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he croſſes the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and in a moment falls down upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuſe, declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandons them. In this extremity Rome owed its preſervation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, deſpiſing popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The ſtrength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raiſes the ſiege of Nola, takes Syracuſe, and revives the drooping ſpirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of theſe great men, but ſaw ſomething more divine in the young Scipio. The ſucceſs of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converſe with the gods. At the age of four and twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the firſt aſſault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings ſubmit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and ſees her armies defeated. Hannibal, ſixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hoſtages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the conſent of the Roman people. After the conqueſt of Carthage, Rome had inconſiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconſiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by thoſe quarrels which had laſted ſince the death of Alexander the Great. Their ſcene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſtates of Greece had once more diſengaged themſelves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Acheans, and Beotians; each of theſe was an aſſociation of free cities, which had aſſemblies and magiſtrates in common. Of them all the Etolians were the moſt conſiderable. The kings of Macedon maintained that ſuperiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally poſſeſſed over his leſs powerful neighbours. Philip, the preſent monarch, had rendered himſelf odious to the Greeks, by ſome unpopular and tyrannical ſteps; the Etolians were moſt irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their aſſiſtance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garriſons were

220. 212. 210. 202.

obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the ſtates of Greece became their dependants. The Etolians, diſcovering their firſt error, endeavoured to remedy it by another ſtill more dangerous to themſelves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them againſt Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them againſt the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourſe to the ſame prince, and who was at this time the moſt powerful monarch in the Eaſt, and the ſucceſſor to the dominions of Alexander in Aſia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice ſo much, as that of the Etolians; for inſtead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be moſt vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans made uſe of Philip, for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now purſue Antiochus, the laſt object of their
182. reſentment, into Aſia, and having vanquiſhed him by ſea and land, compel him to ſubmit to an infamous treaty.

In theſe conqueſts the Romans ſtill allowed the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which however, under a ſpecious name, concealed the moſt ſervile of all conditions, and inferred, that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on theſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from a barbarous prince, Mithridates king of Pontus. This monarch however had great reſources. His kingdom, bordering on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men, whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince, who dared to ſhew himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and chearfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was compelled to yield to the ſuperior ſtar of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively
65. by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and of his life. In Africa the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius,
105. in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps, began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been

been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The ſame Marius, whoſe name was ſo terrible in Africa, made the north of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians retired to their wilds and deſerts, leſs formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an internal war within her walls. This war had ſubſiſted from the firſt periods of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a nominal liberty. The deſcendents of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependance, and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſand diſputes on this ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

121. 102.

Theſe diſputes, however, while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous conſequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, chearfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern courts, and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable, in order to obtain them, the ſtate, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either ſide, to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue, to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name; the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline, and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They knew none but their commander; under his banner they fought and conquered and plundered, and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other.

Had it not been for the soldiers of Sylla, Rome would have surrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæsar at length appears. By subduing the Gauls,
58. he gained his country the most useful conquest it ever made.
Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Phar-
48. salia. Cæsar victorious appears in a moment all over the world, in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all sides, he is acknowledged master at Rome, and in the whole empire. Bru-
43. tus and Cassius think to give Rome her liberty, by stabbing him in the senate house. But they only subject her to tyrants, who, without his clemency or abilities, were not inferior in ambition. The republic falls into the
31. hands of Mark Anthony; young Cæsar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæsar, wrests it from him by the sea-fight at Actium; there is no Brutus nor Cassius, to put an end to his life. The friends of liberty have killed themselves in despair, and Octavius, under the name of Augustus, and title of emperor, remains the undisturbed master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations, and while it was unknown who should be master at Rome, the Romans were without dispute the masters of the world; their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Persian, the Greek, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory, and they were now only a name. No sooner therefore was Octavius established on the throne, than embassadors from all quarters of the known world, crowd to make their submissions. Æthiopia sues for peace, the Parthians, who had been a most formidable enemy, court his friendship, the Indies seek his al-
24. liance, Pannonia acknowledges him, Germany dreads
25. him, and the Weser receives his laws. Victorious by
7. sea and land, he shuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jesus Christ comes into the world.

Having thus traced the progress of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to say a few words with regard to the arts, sciences, and manners of that people. During the first ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politicks, and agriculture were the only arts they studied, because they were the only arts they esteemed. But upon the downfal of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taste the sweets of security, and to cultivate the arts. Their progress however was not gradual as in the other countries we have

have described. The conquest of Greece at once put them in possession of every thing most rare, curious or elegant. Asia, which was the next victim, offered all its stores, and the Romans, from the most simple people, speedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are only inferior to those of Demosthenes, which, according to all our ideas, are perfect productions. In poetry Virgil yields only to Homer, whose verse, like the prose of Demosthenes, is perfect and inimitable. Horace however, in his satires and epistles, had no model among the Greeks, and stands to this day unrivalled in that species of writing. In history the Romans can boast of Livy, who possesses all the natural ease of Herodotus, and is more descriptive, more eloquent, and sentimental. Tacitus indeed did not flourish in the Augustan age, but his works do himself the greatest honour, while they disgrace his country and human nature, whose corruption and vices he paints in the most striking colours. In philosophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the system of the Greek philosopher Epicurus, described in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the least attempt. In tragedy, they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of style, wants that comica vis, or lively vein of humour, which distinguished the Greek comedians, and which distinguishes our Shakespeare.

We now return to our history, and are arrived at an æra, which presents us with a set of monsters, under the name of emperors, whose histories, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. They did not indeed abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguished its liberties, and while they were practising the most unwarrantable cruelties upon their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recal to our mind the situation of Turkey at present. It is of no importance therefore to consider the character of the emperors, since they had no power but what arose from a mercenary standing army, nor to enter into a detail with regard to the transactions of the court, which were directed by that caprice, and cruelty and corruption, which universally prevail under a despotic government. When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized

part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained, for the emperors to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though these countries had been discovered, they were not effectually subdued by the Roman generals. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars, with the Germans, are described by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is easy to discover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they submitted to a foreign yoke. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were on both sides bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste, the inhabitants perished in the field, many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners, of their new masters. These however were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of their arms, for being over-awed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumstance which could support them under these complicated calamities, was the hope of seeing better days.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths and Vandals, and other Barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various provinces of Germany, which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the north of Europe, and north-west of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country, by that restlessness which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in quest of plunder, or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only

only roused them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, of the friends they had lost, and warm them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men, (says an elegant historian, in describing this scene of desolation) with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth, like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted were occupied by more remote tribes of Barbarians. These, in their turn, pushed forward into more fertile countries, and like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the Barbarians marched, their rout was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred, and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called upon to fix upon the period, in the history of the world, during which, the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, labour, and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horror of it. *The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor about the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Christianity, changed the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. This occasioned a prodigious alteration. The western and eastern provinces were separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the east, threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome (now known by the name of the Western Empire, in contradistinction to Constantinople, which, from its situation, was called the Eastern Empire) weakened by this division, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its antient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Adoaces, a Barbarian chieftain, sits down on the throne of the Cæsars. These irruptions into the empire, were gradual and successive. The immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. The antient discipline of the Romans, in military affairs,

was

was so efficacious, that the remains of it descended to their successors, and must have proved an over-match for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite dish. The tyranny, and the universal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or as they are called Cæsars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations, who overcame them.

Towards the close of the sixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were masters of the southern, and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarce any vestige of the Roman policy, jurisprudence, arts or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dresses, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period till the 16th century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarce in use during these ages. Persons of the highest rank, and in the most eminent stations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not understand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; some of them could scarce read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior genius of Charlemagne, who, about the beginning of the 9th century, governed France, Germany, with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and gave their subjects a short glimpse of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and institutions. The darkness returned, and settled over Europe more thick and heavy than formerly.

A new division of property gradually introduced a new species of government formerly unknown; which singular institution is now distinguished by the name of the Feudal System. The king or general, who led the Barbarians to conquest, parcelled out the lands of the vanquished among his chief officers, binding those on whom they were bestowed, to follow his standard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the sovereign, and in distributing portions of their lands among their dependants,

dependants, annexed the same condition to the grant. But though this system seemed to be admirably calculated for defence against a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a system of oppression.

The usurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude. They were deprived of the natural and most unalienable rights of humanity. They were slaves fixed to the soil, which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by sale, or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and sought redress at the head of his vassals. His adversaries met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependants of the aggressor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter *.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. They declared, that as all men were by nature free born, they determined it should be so in reality as well as in name. In order to create some power, that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controuled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude, and formed them into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.

The acquisition of liberty made such a happy change in the condition of mankind, as roused them from that stupidity and inaction into which they had been sunk by the wretchedness of their former state. A spirit of industry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flourish.

Various causes contributed to revive this spirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourse between different nations. Constantinople, the capital of the eastern, or Greek empire, had escaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the west. In this city, some remains of literature and science were preserved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where some relish for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated some knowledge of these to their neighbours in Italy; and the crusades, which were begun by the Christian

* This Gothic system still prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland so late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, some relicks of these Gothic institutions are perceivable at this day.

Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Turks from Jeruſalem, opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt. Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariners compaſs was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the Eaſt, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire ſome taſte of elegance, unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almoſt in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or ſocieties of Lombard merchants ſettled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of theſe companies ſettled in London; hence the name of Lombard Street.

While the Italians in the ſouth of Europe cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awakened in the North towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infeſted that ſea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburgh, ſoon after they had began to open ſome trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered through thoſe vaſt countries of Germany and Flanders which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the Hanſeatic League; which became ſo formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval ſtores; and pitched on different towns, the moſt eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried

on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the center of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to such extent as well as advantage, as spirited among them a general habit of industry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the most opulent, the most populous, and best cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flourishing state of these provinces, of which he discovered the true cause, Edward III. of England, endeavoured to excite a spirit of industry among his own subjects, who, blind to the advantages of their situation, and ignorant of the source from which opulence was destined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt those manufactures, the materials of which they furnished to foreigners. By alluring Flemish artisans to settle in his dominions, as well as by many wise laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and first turned the active and enterprizing genius of his people towards those arts which have raised the English to the first rank among commercial nations.

The Christian princes, after their great losses in the crusades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendship of the great khans of Tartary, whose fame in arms had reached the most remote corners of Europe and Asia, that they might be some check upon the Turks, who had been such enemies to the Christian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, serving occasionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the finest countries of Asia.

The Christian embassies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering profession of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of these infidels. The English philosopher, Roger Bacon, was so industrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrims, and other books of travels. The first regular traveller of the monkish kind, who committed his discoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with some of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Christian subjects in that prince's extensive dominions. Soon after this, a spirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult

cult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the moſt remote corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chymiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt that rendered a paſſage thither by ſea probable and practicable. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good-Hope, Great-Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

At firſt they contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the coaſt of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, were ſo fortunate as to ſail beyond the cape, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen, as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſcheme ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he ſucceeded, through the intereſt of queen Iſabella, who raiſed money upon her jewels to defray the expences of his expedition, and to do honour to her ſex.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted.

In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with, and his ſailors, always diſcontented, began to inſiſt upon his return, threatening, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard; but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land, after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his ſurprize, that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and which he ſoon diſcovered to be a new world: of which

the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs into which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences; and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th century as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. "It was in theſe ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected, after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we have given ſome account in the hiſtory of each particular ſtate in the following ſheets. The great events which happened then have not hitherto ſpent their force. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed, ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, ſtill influence the councils of European nations."

From all which it ſeems extremely certain, that the concurrence of ſo many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no leſs certain, that in contending for it, they muſt weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves uncapable of defending even their juſt poſſeſſions. The partial conqueſts they may make are extremely illuſive; inſtead of promoting, they rather oppoſe their deſigns; the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker, and great projects have not been ſo often executed by ſlow reiterated efforts, as in the courſe of a few years, and ſometimes by a ſingle expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of deſtroying the rights of his ſubjects; he may proceed by ſlow degrees in the execution of it, and if he die before it is compleated, his ſucceſſor may purſue the ſame ſteps, and avail himſelf of what was done before him. But external conqueſts cannot be concealed; they generally occaſion more fear than hurt, and are almoſt always leſs ſolid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occaſion to, by which the prince, who, by misfortune, has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the laſt extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the beſt eſtabliſhed in the ſcience of politicks. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The ſtates of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the

the Perſian invaſions, exhibit the ſame truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the moſt conſiderable of theſe little ſocieties, but in its turn imbibed the frenzy of conqueſt, and in its turn too was reduced by this frenzy to the utmoſt miſery and diſtreſs *. The modern examples are ſo well known, that it is almoſt unneceſſary to mention them. Who does not know that the houſe of Auſtria excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain! Had that family never been the object of fear, the empreſs queen would never have become the object of compaſſion. France affords an example no leſs ſtriking. The nerves of that kingdom were ſtrained ſo far beyond their ſtrength, by an ambitious monarch, that it is impoſſible they ſhould acquire their natural tone in the courſe of this century. The debility of their late efforts, prove the greatneſs of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which is not ſlow and gradual.

GREAT BRITAIN is at preſent that kingdom in Europe which enjoys the greateſt proſperity and glory. She ought to be the more attentive therefore to preſerve ſo brilliant an exiſtence. The ſpirit of conqueſt neither ſuits with her phyſical ſituation, nor with her political conſtitution. Every attempt to extend her dominion, muſt be attended with two infallible conſequences. The firſt, to alarm her neighbours; the ſecond, to augment her armies. We have ſaid enough to ſhew the danger of the one; the other well deſerves to be traced thro' all its effects. The encreaſe of taxes, the decay of manufactures, that ſpecies of commerce which alone is not precarious, are objects which need only to be hinted at.—But the augmentation of armies muſt, in ſome future period, be attended with a conſequence of another kind, that is, the eſtabliſhment of abſolute monarchy in Great-Britain. The farther our conqueſts are removed from home, this danger becomes the greater. Britiſh ſubjects of conſideration or property will, in time, grow weary of tranſporting themſelves into climates ſcorched by heat, or frozen by cold. Our foreign armies muſt, of courſe, be compoſed of men, who, having no moral tie to attach them to their native country, will ſoon, by living in a diſtant clime, loſe all natural affection for the land in which they were born. This conſequence ſeems to eſcape ſome of our modern ſtateſmen, guided more perhaps by ſentiment than by reaſon, and who, by ſpeeches extremely ſeductive to human pride or ambition, would inadvertently lead this country into a courſe of public meaſures that naturally tends to deſpotiſm.

* The reader who would ſee this ſubject fully illuſtrated, may look at Iſocrates' Oration on the Peace; one of the moſt finiſhed models of antient eloquence; and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

PART III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever roused the attention of mankind. But incapable of elevating their ideas to all the sublimity of his perfections, they have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to those nations whose religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular passions of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven respecting this important object. In deducing the history of religion, therefore, we must make the same distinction which we have hitherto observed in tracing the progress of arts, sciences, and of civilization among mankind. We must separate what is human from what is divine, what had its origin from particular revelations from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unassisted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this distinction we find that in the first ages of the world, the religion of the eastern nations was pure and luminous. It arose from a divine source, and was not then disfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, these began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obscured, and among those tribes which separated at the greatest distance, and in the smallest numbers, from the more improved societies of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this situation a particular people were selected by God himself, to be the depositories of his laws and worship; but the rest of mankind were left to form hypotheses upon these subjects, which were more or less perfect according to an infinity of circumstances, which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The most common religion of antiquity, that which prevailed the longest, and extended the widest, was Polytheism, or the doctrine of a plurality of Gods. The rage of system, the ambition of reducing all the phænomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occasioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this species of worship. For without entering into a minute detail, it is impossible to give an adequate idea of the subject; and what is said upon it in general, must always be liable to a great many exceptions.

One thing however may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the antients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor of disfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the divinity. It ſeems to have ariſen during the rudeſt ages of ſociety, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and paſſion. It was built therefore ſolely upon ſentiment; as each tribe of men had their heroes, ſo likewiſe they had their gods. Thoſe heroes who led them forth to the combat, who preſided in their councils, whoſe image was engraved on their fancy, whoſe exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an exiſtence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendſhip, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot eaſily conceive; but the power of imagination over the ſenſes is what all men have in ſome degree experienced. Combine theſe two cauſes, and it will not appear ſtrange, that the image of departed heroes ſhould have been ſeen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the ſame functions which they performed when alive. An appearance ſo unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil ſpirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the teſtimony of thoſe who had ſeen it, ſupported by the extreme credulity and romantic caſt of thoſe who had not, gained an univerſal aſſent among all the members of their ſociety. A ſmall degree of reflection however would be ſufficient to convince them, that as their own heroes exiſted after death, it might likewiſe be the caſe of thoſe of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be eſtabliſhed, the propitious and the hoſtile; the gods who were to be loved, and thoſe who were to be feared. But time which wears off the impreſſions of tradition, the frequent invaſions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, deſolated or tranſplanted, made them loſe the names, and confound the characters of thoſe two orders of divinities, and form various ſyſtems of religion, which, tho' warped by a thouſand particular circumſtances, give no ſmall indications of their firſt texture and original materials. For in general the gods of the antients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were ſubject to all the paſſions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many inſtances diſcovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the ſame ſubſtances with men; they lived on nectar and ambroſia; they had a particular plea-

ſure in ſmelling the ſteam of the ſacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worſhipped, naturally reſulted from their character.

It muſt be obſerved, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical ſocieties, whoſe principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, alſo had theirs; and there was room enough in the univerſe for both to live together in good fellowſhip, without interfering or joſtling with one another.

The introduction of Chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, by explaining the ſervice he required of men, produced a total alteration on their religious ſentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this ſublime ſubject. It is ſufficient to obſerve here, that a religion, which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no aſſociation with falſe gods, muſt either be altogether deſtroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the caſe. Chriſtianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the ſublimity of its doctrines and precepts; and before it was ſupported by the arm of power, ſuſtained itſelf by the voice of wiſdom.

The management of whatever related to the church, being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation of the clergy, and afterwards of the biſhop of Rome, over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe within our narrow limits all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the controul of the Roman emperors, then reſiding in Conſtantinople; by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of Barbarians, by whom that empire began to be diſmembered; and by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which Fortune threw in their way, ſlowly erected the fabric of their power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious was the rapid improvement of arts, government and commerce, which after

many ages of barbarity, made its way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt, their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects, the immenſe wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of reformation. The abſurd mummeries eſtabliſhed by the Romiſh clergy in order to elevate their power, and augment their riches, were happily turned into ridicule by men of letters, who, on that account, deſerve to be held in everlaſting eſteem, as they contributed, in a very eminent degree, to that aſtoniſhing event, ſo favourable to the civil as well as to the religious liberties of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with Europe.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe, is in many reſpects that which moſt deſerves our attention. It is in Europe that the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards its improvement; and where the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt height and perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe we find the greateſt variety of character, government and manners, and from whence we draw the greateſt number of facts and memorials either for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world. Firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immenſe number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece; we have ſeen that it was in Greece the human mind began to know and to avail itſelf of its ſtrength, and that many of the arts ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented, or at leaſt greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried further, and it is worth while to attend to it. As antient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece, at preſent under the unnatural tyranny of Barbarians) was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe, for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitution, ſo has Europe in general been

remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force, and ſoften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, which do not exiſt any where elſe. In proportion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides monarchies, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe, ariſtocracies or governments of the nobles, and democracies or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and ſome ſtates of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are likewiſe mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments in Europe, are compoſed only of two of the ſimple forms, ſuch as Poland, Sweden, ſeveral ſtates of Italy, &c. all which ſhall be explained at length in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church; 2d, Popery; and 3d, Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm, and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the two diſtinguiſhed reformers of the 16th century.

The languages of Europe are derived from the ſix following. The Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degree weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt long. from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north lat. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America: being 3000 miles long, and 2500 broad. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates.

	Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief City.	Diſt. & Bearing from London.	Diff. of Time from London.	Religions.
					Miles.	H. M.	
British Empire.	England	360	300	London	* * *	* * *	Lutherans
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Calviniſts
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	Luth. Cal. and Pap.
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburg	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek Church
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.
	K. of Pru. Domin.	uncertain		Berlin	540 E.	0 59 bef.	Luth. & Calv.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	Papiſts
Netherlands.	Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calviniſts
	Flanders	200	200	Bruſſels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	Papiſts
	France	600	500	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Papiſts
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Papiſts
	Portugal	300	100	Liſbon	850 S. W.	0 38 aft.	Papiſts
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvin. & Papiſts.
Italy.	Several ſmall ſtates	Piedmont, Montferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuſcany, &c.					
		Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.					
	Popedom	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	Papiſts
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	Papiſts
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	Papiſts
Turkey in Europe.	Danubian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mahometans, and Greek Church.
	Lit. Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 37 bef.	

Excluſive of the Britiſh iſles, mentioned above, Europe contains the following principal iſlands:

Iceland, in the Northern Seas, ſubject to Denmark.

IN THE BALTIC SEA.

1. Zeeland, Funen, Alſen, Femeren, Laland, Falſter, Mona, Bornholm, } ſubject to Denmark.
2. Gothland, Aland, Rugen, — ſubject to Sweden.
3. Oſel, Dagho, — — ſubject to Ruſſia.
4. Uſedom, Wollin, — — ſubject to Pruſſia.

IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

1. Ivica, ſubject to Spain.
2. Majorca, ditto.
3. Minorca, ſubject to Great Britain.
4. Corſica, formerly ſubject to Genoa, now to France.
5. Sardinia, ſubject to the king of Sardinia.
6. Sicily, ſubject to the king of Naples.
7. Archipelago iſlands, ſubject to Turkey, with the iſland of Candia.

IN THE ADRIATIC AND IONIAN SEA.

1. Lieſiena. 2. Corfu. 3. Cephalonia. 4. Zant, — — } ſubject to Venice.
5. Leucadia, ſubject to the Turks.

DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions with the moſt northerly ſituations, and divide them into four parts: 1ſt. Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, Iceland, and the iſlands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d. Norway; 3d. Denmark proper; and 4th. his German territories.

The dimenſions of theſe countries may be ſeen in the following table.

	Denmark.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities:
	Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg,
	Sleſwick,	2,115	70	63	Sleſwick,
Iſlands in the Baltic.	Zealand,	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN,
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odenſee,
	Falſter and Laland,	220	27	12	Nikoping, Naxkaw,
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge,
	Alſen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge,
	Mona,	39	14	5	Stege,
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Rottomby,
In the Nor. ſeas,	Iceland,	46,000	435	185	Skalholt,
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen,
Daniſh	Lapland,	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys,
Weſtphalia,	Oldenburg,	1260	62	32	Oldenburg,
Lower Saxony,	Stromar,	1000	52	32	Gluckſtat.
	Total—	163,001			

The reader may perceive, that in the above table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe, in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we ſhall, however, proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND.

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions; or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby, in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland.

land. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen, from the height and raggedneſs of its rocks. There is a whale-fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and ſome Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſts. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice-Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND.

LIES between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 73 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries, employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 ſtated inhabitants: Mr. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance between the aſpect, manners, and dreſs of thoſe natives, and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Daniſh and German miſſionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of this country, ſays, that in their longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, tho' they have a moſt improveable fiſhery upon their coaſts; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting, in which they are very dextrous.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of Whales in the ſeas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. Theſe fields, or pieces of ice, are, frequently, more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 13 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horſe-hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone. As to the bones of his body, they are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no uſe. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is uſually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head, but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When

When the ſeamen ſee a whale ſpout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall*, when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat; ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart) and the monſter finding himſelf wounded, runs ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line faſt enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome 100 fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a terrible noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. So ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins, till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying, he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniencies on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home; but nothing can ſmell ſtronger than theſe ſhips do. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3 l. or 4 l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim this country of Eaſt Greenland, where theſe whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolized this fiſhery.

ICELAND.

LIES between 63 and 68 deg. N. lat. and between 10 and 26 deg. W. long. from the meridian of London; extending from eaſt to weſt about 720 miles.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants are ſuppoſed to be about 80,000; though it is thought that they were formerly far more numerous, till the country was depopulated by the ſmall-pox, and peſtilential diſeaſes. They are ſubject to the crown of Denmark, and conform to the religion and laws of Norway. His Daniſh majeſty names their governor, called Staffs-amptmaud; but he appoints a deputy-governor, called Amptmaud, who reſides in Iceland, at the king's palace of Reſſeſted, on a ſalary of 400 rixdollars; and he has magiſtrates under him, both in civil and ſpiritual caſes. The people are naturally hardy,

hardy, honeſt, and induſtrious. They amuſe themſelves with cheſs and ſinging. In ſome things they differ little from the Danes and Norwegians; though they have many cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves.

TRADE.] The commerce of this iſland is monopolized by a Daniſh company. Its exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen cloth, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk; excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country, amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO ISLANDS.

SO called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. long. from London. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

NORWAY.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural ſignification of Norway is, the Northern-way. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the weſt and north, by the northern ocean; and on the eaſt, it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country ſo little known to the reſt of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimenſions with preciſion.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its expoſiture towards the ſea. At Bergen, the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, with intenſe

tenſe ſeverity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that while frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountains which ſeparate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe, that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longeſt day conſiſts of about 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt about ſix. In ſummer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight, by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon, for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that in the midſt of their darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they can carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that the inhabitants live ſo long as to be tired of life; and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported to a leſs ſalubrious air. Sudden thaws, and ſnow-falls, have, however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the moſt mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north: to paſs that of Hardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; and to paſs others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the higheſt mountain, perhaps, in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing, at different ſtages, houſes accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a moſt ſurprizing landſcape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf.

The

The caverns that are to be met with in thoſe mountains, are more wonderful than thoſe, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though leſs liable to obſervation. One of them, called Dolſteen, was, in 1750, viſited by two clergymen; who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts, which furniſh foreigners with maſts, beams, planks, and boards; and ſerve beſide for all domeſtic uſes; particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the founderies. The chief timber growing here are fir and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed, (a very curious wood) birch, beech, oak, eel, or alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comel, or ſloe-tree, haſel, elder, and even ebony; (under the mountains of Kolen) lyme and willows. The ſums which Norway receives for timber, are very conſiderable; but the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes; which affords them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, which when its delicate fibres are wove into cloth, are cleaned by the fire, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granates, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. Gold found in Norway, has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Koningſberg; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper-mines at Roraas, is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway likewiſe produces quick-ſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, and coal mines; vitriol, allum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and freſh-water lakes in this country, are well ſtocked with fiſh; and navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs; and though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathom in depth; and its ſite was inſtantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, FOWLS AND FISHES.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark, are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hares, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin and the beaver. The elk is a tall aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and, in the winter, ſocial; and their fleſh taſtes like veniſon. The rein-deer is a ſpecies of ſtag; but we ſhall have occaſion to mention him more particularly afterwards. The hares are ſmall; and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and ſome prefer bear hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or a goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dextrous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous: they are of the cat-kind, and have claws like tygers; they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheep-folds, where they make dreadful havock. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable; as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The

The glutton, otherwiſe called the erven, or vielfras, reſembles a turn-ſpit dog; with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is ſo precious, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt: he is bold, and ſo ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburthens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and few of our readers need to be told, that their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. I ſhall have occaſion to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is the bigneſs of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thruſhes reſide in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood, is of a black or dark-grey colour, his eye reſembling that of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the ſea, or fiſh-eagle, is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic food; and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aërial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway; and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them ſerviceable to the human race: theſe are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bringing away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are ſometimes parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is eaten by the peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers in the northern diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to thoſe bird-men in ſeizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in all fiſh that are found on the ſea-coaſts of Europe, which need not here be enumerated. Some fiſhes in thoſe ſeas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-mœren, is a ſpecies of

ſhark

ſhark ten fathoms in length, and its live yields three caſks of train-oil. The tuello-flynder is an exceſſive large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen overboard, to keep him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring-fiſhing is announced to the fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales (of which ſeven different ſpecies are mentioned) in following the herring ſhoals. The large whale reſembles a cod, with ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly: they ſpout out the water, which they take in by inſpiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land-animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones, on their beaks, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks. The coaſts of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the ſhoals that come from under the ice at the north-pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themſelves into three bodies: one of theſe ſupply the Weſtern Iſles and coaſts of Scotland, another directs its courſe round the eaſtern part of Great-Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torſk-fiſhes, follow them, and feed upon their ſpawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms water: theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

The moſt ſeemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning ſea-monſters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian ſeas; and the ſea-ſnake, or ſerpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was ſhot by a maſter of a ſhip; its head reſembled that of a horſe; the

mouth was large and black, as were the eyes, a white mane hanging from its neck: it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea: between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat, and bark masters, provide themselves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overset; the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. The particularities recounted of this animal would be incredible, were they not attested upon oath. Egede (a very creditable author) says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hogshead; his skin is variegated like a tortoise-shell; and his excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is corrosive, and blisters the hands of the seamen if they handle it.

I should be under great difficulty in mentioning the kraken, or korven, were not its existence proved so strongly, as seem to put it out of all doubt. Its bulk is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sand-banks, on which fishes disport themselves, and seaweeds grow: upon a farther emergement, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and size of a moderate mast, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, consisting of small fishes. When he sinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous swell of the sea succeeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alstahong; and his death was attended by such a stench, that the channel where it died was impassable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may safely say, that the existence of this fish being proved, accounts for many of those phænomena of floating islands, and transitory appearances in the sea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of such an animal.

The mermen and mer-women, hold their residence in the Norwegian seas; but I cannot give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The merman is about eight spans long, and, undoubtedly, has as much resemblance as an

ape has to the human ſpecies; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterize its head; its arms are ſhort, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: the parts of generation indicate their ſexes; though their under part, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones. It would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different deſcriptions which they have given us of their fiſhes; but they are ſo well authenticated, that I make no doubt, a new and very ſurprizing theory of aquatic animals may in time be formed.

CURIOSITIES.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators, the navel of the ſea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Heſleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden, it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow, as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe, unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; ſo violent, that if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl and there diſappears; being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror, than of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent, to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible; and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs, in which they

are

are about to be plunged and dashed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals which have come too near the vortex, have expressed the utmost terror, when they find the stream irresistible. Whales are frequently carried away, and the moment they feel the force of the water, they struggle against it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

It is the opinion of Kircher, that the Malestrom is a sea vortex, which attracts the flood under the shore of Norway, and discharges it again in the gulph of Bothnia: but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the shattered fragments of whatever happens to be sucked down by it. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered, that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phænomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flood, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. The Norwegians are a middling kind of people, between the simplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute; but we may easily conceive that he makes no barbarous use of his power, because we know of few or no representations or insurrections of the people against it.

The Norwegians in general, are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living, and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly resembling the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artizan, and supplies his family in all its necessaries with is own manufactures; so that in Norway, there are few, by profession, who are hatters, shoe-makers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, and joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oatmeal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flower; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians, form a proper subject of contemplation even to a philosopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor dreading penury: this middle state prolongs their ages surprizingly. Though

their dreſs is accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any coverture upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age, is not accounted paſt his labour: and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended the deceaſed.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what ſhall be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rixdollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for the uſe of their king, without hurting either trade or agriculture. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to about 200,000 l. and till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his majeſty's income, by the ſubſidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark likewiſe for this head. The antient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we are to believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with that of Denmark.

DENMARK PROPER.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.

Length 240, Breadth 180, between 8 and 13 East longitude, 54 and 58 North latitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac sea, and from Sweden on the east by the Sound; on the south by Germany and the Baltic; and the German sea divides it from Great-Britain on the west.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts; Jutland, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic sea.

MOUNTAINS, FORESTS, LAKES, RIVERS, CLIMATE, AND SOIL.] Jutland consists chiefly of barren mountains, but some corn grows in the vallies. The face of the country presents a number of large forests; but there is scarcely in Denmark a river navigable to a ship of burden. Some lakes, which contain delicious fishes, are found in the inland parts of the country. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the surrounding sea, than it is in many more southerly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known in Denmark, where winter, and sultry heats during June, July, and August, possess the air. The soil is more recommendable for its pasturage, than for its common vegetable productions. The vallies are in general fruitful; but the soil is sandy in the islands, and requires plentiful showers to raise even a crop of hay.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horses, both for the saddle and carriage; and numbers of black cattle, sheep, and hogs, besides game; and its sea-coasts are generally well supplied with fish.

POPULATION, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual numeration, made in 1759, of his Danish majesty's subjects, in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, in Westphalia; they amounted to 2,444,000 souls, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. However disproportioned this number may seem, to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions, yet, every thing considered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possessions; and it is more than sufficient for all the purposes of commerce. As population generally keeps pace with plenty, especially in northern countries, there can be no doubt that the number of his Danish majesty's subjects, in a few years, will be vastly encreased, by

the improvements introduced among them in agriculture and other arts.

The noble diſpoſition of his Daniſh majeſty for improving his country, renders it very difficult to ſpeak with any certainty concerning the manners and cuſtoms, the police and manufactures of his dominions. Commerce, undoubtedly, is on the reviving hand in Denmark; and ſince the kings there have been rendered abſolute, particular titles of honour, ſuch as thoſe of count and baron, have been introduced into the kingdom; but the adventuring, warlike ſpirit, ſeems to be loſt among their nobility, whoſe civil powers are indeed annihilated, but they are tyrants over their inferiors and tenants, who, as to property, are ſtill in a ſtate of vaſſalage. It is more than probable, however, that his preſent Daniſh majeſty will, in that and all other reſpects, give a new face to the police of his country; and he has already taken ſome effectual meaſures for that purpoſe, by meliorating the ſtate of the peaſants; the only ſpur to induſtry.

The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now begin to viſit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into ſix dioceſes; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland: theſe dioceſes are governed by biſhops, whoſe profeſſion is entirely to ſuperintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a diſtinction of their eccleſiaſtical dreſs, for they have neither cathedrals nor eccleſiaſtical courts, nor the ſmalleſt concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are ſo good, that they are revered by the people.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are ſpoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publickly taught at Copenhagen as a neceſſary part of education. A company of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The univerſity of Copenhagen is ſaid now to be encouraged by the government; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though aſtronomy and medicine are highly indebted to Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines; not to mention that the Danes begin now to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, makes a magnificent appearance

appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four royal castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others, belonging to Calvinists and other persuasions, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by some public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in their lanes chiefly of timber. Its university has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, which admits indeed of only one ship to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals, and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and its naval arsenal is said far to exceed that of Venice.

The finest palace belonging to his Danish majesty, lies about 20 English miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericsburg. It is a most magnificent house, and built in the modern taste; but ill contrived, and worse situated; being in a moist unhealthy soil. While the kings of Denmark reside, as they often do, at this palace, they lay aside great part of their state, and mingle with their subjects in their diversions both of the court and the field.

Jagersburg, is a park which contains a royal country seat, called the Hermitage; which is remarkable for the disposition of its apartments, and the quaintness of its furniture; particularly a machine, which conveys the dishes to and from the king's table in the second story. The chief ecclesiastical building in Denmark, is the cathedral of Roschild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments still remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered passage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

COMMERCE.] I shall, under this head, include the commodities and manufactures imported to and exported from the country. Fir, and other timber, black cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, are the natural product of the Danish dominions; and consequently are ranked under the head of exports. To these we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbid. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy and silk from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourse with England, from whence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England. But nothing shews the commercial spirit of the Danes in a stronger light, than their establishments in the East and West-Indies.

In 1612, Christiern IV. of Denmark, established an East-India company at Copenhagen; and, soon after, four ships sailed

from thence to the East-Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and in 1617 they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort, invited numbers of them to ſettle here; ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt-India company were ſoon rich enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620, endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice-trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pit, an Engliſh Eaſt-India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the rajah of Tanjour. Upon the cloſe of the wars of Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt-India company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription, for enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt-India company, with vaſt privileges; and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I ſhall juſt mention, that the Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, in the Weſt-Indies; which are free ports, and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg, on the coaſt of Guinea; and carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Denmark Proper, affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, and both in the form of a hunting horn: that of gold ſeems to be of pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, it probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half; and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they ſay, was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a Ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion, that this veſſel was made

made by order of Chriſtiern I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. I ſhall juſt mention in this place, that ſeveral veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the north of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments; ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals antient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen; which is ſo contrived, that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburg and Sleſwic, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh.

The greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean thoſe antient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and hiſtorians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, was known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo Grammaticus, has exhibited ſpecimens of ſeveral of thoſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The civil conſtitution of Denmark, in its preſent deſpotic ſtate, ariſes out of the ruins of the ariſtocratic powers which the nobility exerciſed over their inferiors with moſt intolerable tyranny. Formerly their kings were elective, and might be depoſed by the convention of eſtates, which included the repreſentatives of the peaſants. The king's royalty gave him pre-eminence in the field and the courts of juſtice, but no revenues were attached to it; and unleſs he had a great eſtate of his own, he was obliged to live like a private nobleman. In proceſs of time, however, the regal dignity became hereditary; or rather, the ſtates tacitly acquieſced in that mode of government, to prevent the horrible ravages which they had experienced from civil wars and diſputed ſucceſſions. Their kings of the race of Oldenburg, the preſent royal family, though ſome of them were brave and ſpirited princes, did not chuſe to abridge the nobility of their powers; and a ſeries of unſucceſsful wars rendered the nation in general ſo miſerable, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people then, as uſual,

threw

threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, one Otta Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than ſlaves to the lords.

This was the watch-word, which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, the ſpeaker of the commons, catched hold of the term Slavery, the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices; and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The biſhop of Copenhagen officiated as ſpeaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, ſubmitted with the beſt grace they could, to confirm what had been done.

It is happy for the Danes, that ever ſince the year 1660, when this great revolution took place, few or no inſtances have happened, of abuſing the deſpotic powers thus veſted in the kings, which are at preſent perhaps more extenſive than thoſe of any crowned head in Europe. On the contrary, the adminiſtration of civil juſtice in Denmark is conſidered by many as a model for other nations; and ſome princes, his Pruſſian majeſty particularly, have actually adopted great part of it. The code of the Daniſh laws, is a quarto volume, drawn up in the language of the country, in ſo plain and perſpicuous a manner, and upon ſuch ſimple principles of juſtice, that the moſt ignorant may learn it; and every man may plead his own cauſe: and no ſuit is to hang in ſuſpence beyond one year and a month. But *the king hath privilege to explain, nay, to alter and change the ſame as he ſhall think good.* In Denmark there are two inferior courts, from which appeals lie to a High Right court in Copenhagen, where the king preſides, aſſiſted by his chief nobility. Judges are puniſhed in caſes of miſbehaviour or corruption. Other tribunals are inſtituted for the affairs of the revenue, army, commerce, admiralty, and criminal matters. In ſhort, it is allowed on all hands, that the civil policy of Denmark, and its executive powers, produce wonderful effects for the ſafety of the people as well as of the government.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL INTERESTS OF DENMARK.

Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, his court ſeems to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the late war; but never could get rid of French influence, notwithſtanding his connections with Great-Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army; but his family-diſputes with Ruſſia, concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendency which the French had obtained over the Swedes, not to mention many other matters, did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation; eſpecially about the time the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded. His preſent Daniſh majeſty's plan, ſeems to be that of forming his dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. His friendſhip with Great-Britain, and the preſent divided deſpicable condition of the Swedes, together with the pacific diſpoſition of the princes of the empire, leave him at full leiſure to proſecute the great plans he has formed. The improvements his ſubjects have made ſince the reign of Frederic IV. who died in 1730, in manufactures and the mechanical arts, are aſtoniſhing; and the wiſe ſumptuary laws, eſpecially thoſe againſt imports of foreign manufactures, keep immenſe ſums in the kingdom.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The preſent condition of her navy, renders her ſecure by ſea from Sweden and Ruſſia, whoſe marine, when united, falls ſhort of that of Denmark; for though the Ruſſians maintain a large number of ſhips, yet they are ſo poorly navigated, that Ruſſia cannot be conſidered as a maritime power. The exports of Denmark enables her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe is particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her ſhip-building ſtores. His preſent majeſty, like his father and grandfather, makes ſtrong efforts for drawing the trade of Hamburgh towards the favourite town of Altena; but hitherto with little apparent ſucceſs. This rivalſhip, however, never can embroil her with any European power, provided his Daniſh majeſty is ſo wiſe as to make no attempt upon the city of Hamburgh itſelf.

The preſent imperial family of Ruſſia has indeed many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holſtein; but as her poſſeſſions were guaranteed by his Britannic majeſty, there is but ſmall appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character,

and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing and deſpotic a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark; but of this there is at preſent very ſmall likelihood; and, whatever the arts of France may attempt, the Danes will always look with a jealous eye upon every meaſure taken for aboliſhing the preſent forms of the Swediſh conſtitution. The greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power is, when the Baltic ſea (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over, as to bear not only men, but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Daniſh majeſty's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are moderately taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The reader is to obſerve, that the internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers, ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip and value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the Swedes, who command the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time, refuſed to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty, George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great-Britain and the Netherlands. The toll is paid at Elſenore, a town ſeated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic ſea, and about 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. No eſtimate can be made of its produce, nor of the groſs revenue of Denmark; though it is generally thought to amount at preſent to about 700,000 l. a year; a ſum which, in that country, goes far, and maintains a ſplendid court, and powerful armaments both by ſea and land.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of their people in martial af-

fairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they have kept up with vaſt care. The preſent army of Denmark conſiſts of 40,000 men, cavalry and infantry; moſt of whom are officered by foreigners. Though this army is burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark, the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money. His preſent majeſty ſeems determined to re-eſtabliſh the naval force of his kingdom, and to rank himſelf as a maritime power. It muſt be acknowledged that he has great invitation to ſuch a conduct; his ſubjects in general are excellent ſeamen; Copenhagen has a noble capacious ſea-port; and the preſent naval force of Denmark is ſaid to conſiſt of 30 ſhips of the line.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK. } Theſe are two; that of the Elephant, and that of Daneburg: the former was inſtituted by Chriſtiern I. and is deemed the moſt honourable; its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-coloured watered ribbon; worn like the George in England: the number of its members, beſides the ſovereign, are thirty. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is ſaid to be of the higheſt antiquity, conſiſt of a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto, *Pietate & juſtitia.*

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark, to a very extraordinary phænomenon; I mean, the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt over all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, has adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the moſt ridiculous abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can, however, collect enough from him to conclude, that the antient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards; who recounted the military atchievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia * or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even

* By Scythia may be underſtood all thoſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia, now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars. See the Introduction.

Even the name of the firſt Chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people whom they commanded were ſo blended together, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature under that prince, throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers; that ſo far back as the year of Chriſt 500, they inſulted all the ſea coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the hiſtory of Denmark and that of England, under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her addreſs, and partly by hereditary right, ſhe formed the union of Calmar; by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was juſtly ſtiled the Semiramis of the North. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar fell to nothing; but Norway ſtill continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtiern, count of Oldenburg, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtiern II. king of Denmark, one of the moſt complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden, for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. About the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark, by that wiſe and politic prince Chriſtiern III.

Chriſtiern IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league, formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria;

Auſtria; but, though brave in his own perſon, he was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtiern, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon, Frederic III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, purſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden; which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Fredericſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter, he marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops, took Odenſee and Nyburg; and marched over the Great Belt, to beſiege Copenhagen itſelf. Cromwell, the Engliſh uſurper, interpoſed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity, till the peace of Roſchild; by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim, in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic ſought to elude thoſe ſevere terms; but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land. The ſteady intrepid conduct of Frederic under theſe misfortunes, endeared him to his ſubjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence, till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic; who ſhewed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet, under Montague, appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the iſland of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the iſland of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferably to his own, indeared him ſo much in their eyes, that they rendered him abſolute, in the manner and for the reaſons I have already mentioned. Frederic was ſucceeded, in 1670, by his ſon, Chriſtiern V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Chriſtiern obſtinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle

of

of Landſcroon: and he had almoſt exhauſted his dominions in his military operations, till he was in a manner abandoned by all his allies, and forced to ſign a treaty on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtiern, however, did not deſiſt from his military attempts; and at laſt he became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatning Europe with chains. Chriſtiern, after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was ſucceeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein; and probably muſt have become maſter of that dutchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen; while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in-law, the duke of Holſtein. Charles, probably, would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and who afterwards did great ſervice againſt the French.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon the Swediſh Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuſch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf, by ſeizing great part of the ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Tonningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar, in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark, with a moſt embittered ſpirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhal, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in conſequence of which, a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the dutchy of Sleſwic. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes, by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtiern Frederic, made no other uſe of his power, and the advantages

with

with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects; whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction, * Chriſtiern ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. He had, two years after, viz. 1738, a diſpute with his Britannic majeſty, about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein Lawenburg, and which Chriſtiern ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt; in which Chriſtiern, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Chriſtiern a ſubſidy of 70,000 l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after, he ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading, without his leave, to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtiern had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to his then Swediſh majeſty. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken: but whatever Chriſtiern's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtiern died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention, that the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded between his royal highneſs the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttel; and died in 1766. His ſon,

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the Houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

Chriſtiern VI. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his Britannic majeſty's youngeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Carolina-Matilda. I have already mentioned the many fair proſpects which this prince's reign has already opened for the good of his people; and can only add, from the ſpecimens he has given the public of his virtues, that he bids fair to be the greateſt king that ever filled the throne of Denmark.

His Danish Majesty's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

THOSE dominions are mentioned in a ſeparate article chiefly for the ſake of order, as the inhabitants differ little or nothing from other Germans; we ſhall therefore be more general in deſcribing them. The duchy of Sleſwic, which ſome ſay properly belongs to Denmark, is bounded by Jutland, the Baltic, the duchy of Holſtein, and the German ocean. It is well watered, and produces plenty of corn; but the capital city of Sleſwic, which ſtands upon a ſmall arm of the ſea, called the Sley, is much decayed both in trade and population. Gottorp ſtands likewiſe upon the Sley; and was once famous for the magnificent palace of its dukes, and for being the reſidence of the celebrated aſtronomer Tycho Brahe; ſome of his planetary machines and globes ſtill remaining in one of the ſummer-houſes of the palace.

Holſtein belongs partly to Denmark and partly to Ruſſia. The capital of the Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, in a marſhy ſituation, on the right of the Elbe; in which is a Lutheran, a Calviniſt, a Romiſh church, and a Jews ſynagogue; and has ſome foreign commerce. Keyl is the capital of the Ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices.

The famous city of Hamburgh lies, in a geographical ſenſe, in Holſtein, but is now an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holſtein called Stormar: it has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it is furniſhed with a vaſt variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburgh has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great-Britain, with whom it

it ſtill carries on a great trade. The Hamburghers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

In Weſtphalia, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt; they lie near the ſouth ſide of the Weſer; their capitals, of the ſame name, are both regularly fortified: and Oldenburg gave a title to the firſt royal anceſtor of his preſent Daniſh majeſty.

LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that I treat of it under a diſtinct head, and in the ſame method that I obſerve in other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION AND NAME. The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71 30 N. lat. to the White-Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the moſt valuable; and ſome parts, in the eaſt, to the Muſcovites. It would be little better than waſting the reader's time, to pretend to point out the ſuppoſed dimenſions of each. That belonging to the Swedes, may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts ſay, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Muſcovite part lies towards the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White-Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding the rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. The Swediſh Lapland therefore is the object conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the deſcendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the Introduction, may eaſily conceive that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and during winter, it never riſes: but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In winter, it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in ſome thermometers, ſpirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place, and then the froſt that ſucceeds, preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels in his ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts which daſh from the mountains, often preſent to the eye the moſt pictureſque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The reader muſt form in his mind, a vaſt maſs of mountains irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland: they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terreſtrial Paradiſe: even roſes and flowers grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; but this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature; for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome, unhealthy moraſſes, cover great part of the flat country; ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of copper and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland: beautiful chryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurprizingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have been ſometimes found in rivers, but never in the ſeas.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The zibelin, a creature reſembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is ſo much eſteemed, that it is frequently given as preſents to royal and diſtinguiſhed perſonages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the moſt remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the rein-deer; which nature ſeems to have provided to ſolace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon the moſs already deſcribed:

ſcribed: they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding it out, and when found, they ſcrape away the ſnow, that covers it, with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journeys which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down, with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to ſupport their maſter. Their inſtinct in chuſing their road and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for, by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in woods. Their fleſh is a well-taſted food, whether freſh or dried: their ſkin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body: their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But it is ſaid, that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally pitched upon. Were I to recount every circumſtance, related by the credulous, of this animal, the whole would appear fabulous. It is ſufficient to obſerve further, that the number of tame rein-deers poſſeſſed by a Laplander, forms the chief part of his riches. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in ſummer to keep them from ſtraggling; they are ſometimes buried in the ſnow; and they frequently grow reſtive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. His ſurprizing ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) ſeems to be owing to his impatience to get rid of his incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture, when he is confined in one of thoſe carriages or pulkhas; or believe that by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination. But after all thoſe abatements, the natives would have difficulty to ſubſiſt without their rein-deer, which ſerves them for more purpoſes than I have room to mention.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is barbarous, but it ſeems radically to have come from Finland. Learning has made no progreſs among them; and they practiſe ſuch arts only as ſupply them with the

means of living. Miſſionaries from the chriſtianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Chriſtian religion; but they cannot be ſaid even yet to be Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries, as are to be found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their ſuperſtitions, have induced the northern traders to believe that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians, who are a peculiar ſet of men, make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to their progreſs, the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Thoſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of the impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's direction, they gain what wind they want. This is a very common traffic on the banks of the Red-Sea, and is managed with great addreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods, but have among them great remains of the druidical inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul; and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general ſhorter by the head than more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman, who was ſuckling her own child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make, however, a more human appearance than the men, who are ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, he, or his friends, court her father with brandy; when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's

beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable; which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed from her father by the lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes made of rein-deer milk. They receive for theſe, rixdollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco, and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. And the reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox-ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rixdollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war; and ſo far as we know, never employed in any army. The above is the lateſt and beſt account that has been received of this extraordinary people. As to the other particulars relating to them, they are in common with their neighbours the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Ruſſians.

SWEDEN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		
Length	800	between	56 and 69 north latitude.
Breadth	500		10 and 30 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] THIS country is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the ſouth; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Theſe two provinces belong

now, however, to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swediſh Lapland: and 7. The Swediſh iſlands. Great abatements muſt be made for the lakes, and unimproved parts of Sweden; which are ſo extenſive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom.

Sweden.	Square miles. 76,835	Sum total. 228,715	Length.	Brdth.	Capital Cities.
Sweden Proper —	47,900		342	194	STOCKHOLM N. L. 59 30. E. L. 19 15.
Gothland — —	25,975		253	160	Calmar
Schonen — —	2960		77	56	Lunden
		76,835			
Lapland, and W. Bothnia —	76,000		420	340	Torne Uma
Finland, and E. Bothnia —	73,000		395	225	Abo Cajenburg
Gothland I. —	1000		80	23	Wiſby
Oeland I. —	560		55	10	Barkholm
		150,560			
Upper Pomerania, P.	960		47	24	Stralſund
Saxony Rugen I.	360		24	21	Bergen
		1,320			

The face of Sweden is pretty ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. } The ſame may be ſaid with regard to this article. Summer burſts from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot, as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurprizingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay, that they rear almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and

and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces chryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and ſmelting houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,398 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vaſt taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of ſtate. Thoſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for ſome years, the exports of Sweden for iron, brought in 300,000l. ſterling. Dr. Buſching thinks that they conſtituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that the extortions of the Swediſh government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture in Sweden; ſo that the Swedes very ſoon muſt apply themſelves to other branches of trade and improvements, eſpecially in agriculture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] A few leagues from Gottenburg, there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity, from the height into ſo deep a bed of water, that large maſts, and other bodies of timber, that are precipitated down it, diſappear, ſome for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake, which ſinges things put into it, has been found in the ſouthern part of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone,

which

which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with several streaks of white, as if composed of gold and silver, affords both sulphur, vitriol, allum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuscript copy of a translation of the Gospels into Gothic, done by a bishop 1300 years ago.

SEAS.] Their seas are the Baltic, and the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the west of Sweden are the Categate sea, and the Sound, a strait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

These seas have no tides, and are frozen up usually four months in the year; nor are they so salt as the ocean, never mixing with it, because a current sets always out of the Baltic sea into the ocean.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] These differ little from those already described in Norway and Denmark, to which I must refer; only the Swedish horses are known to be more serviceable in war than the German. The Swedish hawks, when carried to France, have been known to revisit their native country; as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inscription on a small gold plate, signifying that he belonged to the French king. The fishes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the same with those in other northern countries, and taken in such quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are salted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the seals, taken in the gulph of Finland, is a considerable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] There is a great diversity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they have been known to have different characters in different ages. At present, their peasants seem to be a heavy plodding race of men, strong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. One could form no idea that the modern Swedes are the descendents of those, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through the most distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The intrigues of their senators dragged them to take part in the late war against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hospitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. The dress, exercises,

and diverſions of the common people, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark: the better ſort are infatuated with French modes and faſhions. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have little to ſpare in their own life-time. The women go to plough, threſh out the corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, carry burthens, and do all the common drudgeries in huſbandry.

RELIGION.] Chriſtianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated among them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are ſurprizingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and have ſuch an averſion to popery, that caſtration is the fate of every Roman-catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal has a revenue of about 400l. a year; and has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuper-intendents, with moderate ſtipends. No clergyman has the leaſt direction in the affairs of ſtate; but their morals, and the ſanctity of their lives, endear them ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons direct their religious œconomy. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have of late exhibited ſome noble ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſelquiſt, into the eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expence for that country, all Haſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo is the preſent Linnæus, who has carried natural philoſophy, in ſome branches at leaſt, to the higheſt pitch. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature, is well known to the public; and ſhe may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midſt of the preſent diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, are encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a great

great height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are the univerſities of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by ſeveral ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There is another at Abo, in Finland, but not ſo well endowed nor ſo flouriſhing: and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free-ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The Swediſh commonalty ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic, are the bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fiſh. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late as the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their own crude ore to the Hanſe towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utenſils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactures of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollen, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Book-ſelling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linen, allum, brimſtone, paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills; vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have alſo founderies for cannon, forgeries for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flatting-mills; mills alſo for fulling, and for boring, and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, being 24 in number, are called Staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to mine diſtricts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly encreaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports, moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off in Swediſh ſhips; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation-act, like that of the Engliſh. Thoſe promiſing appearances were, however, blaſted, by the madneſs and jealouſies of the Swediſh

Swediſh government; the form of which ſhall be hereafter deſcribed; and the people are now ſo oppreſt with taxes, that ſome important revolution is daily expected in that kingdom.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom; it ſtands about 790 miles north-eaſt from London, upon ſix contiguous iſlands, and built upon piles. The caſtle, though commodious, and covered with copper, has neither ſtrength nor beauty; but accommodates the royal court, and the national courts and colleges. The number of houſekeepers who pay taxes, are 60,000. The harbour is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, and this city is furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce (particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666l. 13s. 4d. ſterling) that are common to other great European cities.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden, by which I mean its political conſtitutions, is of itſelf a ſtudy, occaſioned by the checks which each order has upon another. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter, Ulrica; who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates to their former liberties; and they, in return, aſſociated her huſband, the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden can ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military, are conferred by the king only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates are formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which includes the gentry, amount to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſits in its own houſe, and has its own ſpeaker; and each chuſes a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates are to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body have greater powers than the parliament of Great-Britain; becauſe, as it has been obſerved, the king's prerogative is far more bounded.

When the ſtates are not ſitting, the affairs of the public are managed by the king and the ſenate, which are no other than a com-

a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper houſe, appoint 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe chuſe three perſons, who are to be preſented to the king, that he may nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants have no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power is lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſts of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, form the king's privy-council; but he has no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lie to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator is accountable for his conduct to the ſtates. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden may be called republican, for the king's power is not ſo great as a ſtadtholder. The ſenate has even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number, who is to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes have introduced into the adminiſtration of civil, military, commercial, and other departments; it is ſufficient to ſay, that though nothing can be more plauſible, yet nothing is leſs practicable than the whole plan of their diſtributive powers. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, are multiplied to an inconvenient degree; many of their courts have little or nothing to do; and every operation of government is retarded or rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which it muſt paſs. This is ſeen in the preſent deplorable ſtate of Sweden, where its whole ſyſtem of government was lately in danger of annihilation; which muſt ſtill be the conſequence, if ſome material alterations are not introduced into it by the ſtates; for the king and people equally complain of the ſenate.

POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN. The Swedes of late have been little better than penſioners to France. Through a ſtrange medley of affairs, and views of intereſt, that crown has vaſt influence in all the deliberations of their ſenate; though it is evident, that the great ſcheme of the French is, to enlarge the royal powers ſo as that the king, who muſt depend upon them for ſupport, may have it in his power to controul the reſolutions of the ſenate. The imprudence of the majority of that body, by reducing the royal power into too narrow a compaſs, and, at the ſame time, oppreſſing the people, afford them a fair proſpect of ſucceſs. It

is,

is, however, to be hoped, that his Swediſh majeſty, the moment he is extricated from the preſent difficulties of his government, will apply himſelf to the true intereſts of his country, and be contented, under the guaranty of Great-Britain, to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality with regard both to Denmark and Ruſſia. The intereſt of Sweden even reaches as far as Turkey; for that empire found its account in balancing the power of Ruſſia by that of Charles XII. At preſent, Sweden is crippled in every operation; and ſuch are the public diſtractions, that her ſubjects are even diſabled from availing themſelves of the natural produce of their country in manufactures and exports.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, ſince the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. has been greatly reduced. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie, in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown-lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced a million ſterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient; ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d. and the ſubſidies paid them by France helps to encreaſe their currency.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] I have already hinted, that no country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is cloathed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates; and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70 l. per annum, is charged with a foot-ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary cloaths, and about 20 s. a year in money; or elſe a little wooden houſe is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſubject to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be ſaid, that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out forty ſhips of the line.

ROYAL

ROYAL STILE.] The king's ſtile is, King of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomeran, &c.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. I ſhall not here follow the wild romances of Swediſh hiſtorians through the early ages. It is ſufficient to ſay, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor ſhall I diſpute her being the paramount ſtate of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway) and that ſhe borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Chriſtianity, however, by Anſgarius, biſhop of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swediſh hiſtory.

The hiſtory of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, is confuſed and unintereſting, and often doubtful; but ſufficiently replete with murders, maſſacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it aſſumes an appearance more regular and conſiſtent; and affords wherewith to recompence the attention of thoſe who chooſe to make it an object of their ſtudies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained, or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itſelf in a very rude and imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified rank, from the great reſpect paid to their character, among the inhabitants of the north, had acquired an immenſe influence in all public affairs, and had obtained poſſeſſions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate, formed a council called the Senate, which was maſter of all public deliberations. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſentions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign; they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indolent pomp of a few magnificent biſhops; and what was ſtill more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs, expoſed them to the inroads and oppreſſion of a foreign enemy. Theſe were the Danes, who, by their

their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themſelves of the diſſentions in Sweden, and to ſubject under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſituation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under their nominal ſubjection of its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Towards the year 1374, Margaret, daughter of Valdenar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She has been called the Semiramis of the north, becauſe, like Semiramis, ſhe found means to reduce by arms or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway and Sweden. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the north, by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Chriſtiern II. the laſt king of Denmark, who, by virtue of this agreement, was alſo king of Sweden, had an ambition to become abſolute. The barbarous policy, by which he attempted to effectuate this deſign no leſs barbarous, proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacring the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1510. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtiern, no one remained in Sweden, but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince, deſcended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had already ſignalized his arms againſt the king of Denmark. An immenſe price was laid on his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity and addreſs, he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped under the diſguiſe of a peaſant, to the mountains of Dalicarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how to prevent his diſcovery he wrought in the braſs-mines, how he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence, and in fine, ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage but warlike inhabitants of Dalicarlia, to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe, and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. The antient nobility were moſtly deſtroyed. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his perſon. He was created,

therefore, firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the univerſal conſent, and with the ſhouts of the whole nation. His circumſtances were much more favourable than thoſe of any former prince, who had poſſeſſed this dignity. The maſſacre of the nobles, had rid him of thoſe proud and haughty enemies, who had ſo long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no leſs powerful and dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the north, the force with which they were ſupported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of that country, and the exerciſe of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited, under the ſevereſt penalties, (which have never yet been relaxed) in the year 1544. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all governments, and when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the moſt wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy: the happy effects of this change were ſoon viſible. Arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation and commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties or deliberations.

Guſtavus, after a glorious reign, died in 1559; while his eldeſt ſon, Eric, was preparing to embark for England, to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who ſucceded his father, Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miſerable and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers, forced them to take up arms; and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 1566. His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made ſtrong efforts for that purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by his brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. John's ſon, Sigiſmund, was, however, choſen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to reſtore the Roman-catholic religion in his dominions, but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; and being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew, Sigiſmund, endeavoured to drive him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt, he and his family were excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles. The reign of Charles, through the practices

practices of Sigiſmund, who was himſelf a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtates, though then only in his eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages; all which he ſurmounted. He narrowly miſſed being maſter of Ruſſia; but the Ruſſians were ſo tenacious of their independency, that his ſcheme was baffled. In 1617, he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a ſum of money beſides.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen a vaſt deal of military ſervice, and he was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than hiſtorians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprizing ſpirit, and ſupported his antient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom Guſtavus defeated; and in 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzic, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that the proteſtant cauſe placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes: even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is ſufficient to ſay, that after taking Riga, and overrunning Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous count Tilly, the Auſtrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenſtein, another Auſtrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to command againſt Guſtavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen, after gaining a battle; which had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals, trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſons to believe that he had in his eye ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor, Oxenſtiern, was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſhe in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new ſyſtem.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men; to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts: but illiberal, and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the ſame time diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin, Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-Points, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. His progreſs upon the ice againſt Denmark, has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a ſubſidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland againſt him. He afterwards joined with

France

France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being beaten in Germany at Felem-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburg made himſelf maſter of the Swediſh Pomerania; the biſhop of Munſter overran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germains, which followed that of Nimeguen, recovered all he had loſt, except ſome places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's ſiſter: but made a very bad uſe of the tranquillity he had regained; for he enſlaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power deſpotic, and his army formidable. The ſtates loſt all their power; and Sweden was reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtrance in favour of his countrymen, but he ſaved himſelf by flight; and Charles became ſo conſiderable a power, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwic were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Piper; who became thereby his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head againſt them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike atchievements equalled, if they did not excel, thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland: but he ſtained all his laurels, by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland; and his name carried with it ſuch terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and among others,

by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſition, however, was ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt, in the battle of Pultowa, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks found it, however, convenient for their affairs, to ſet him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madneſs; and after his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-ſhot, at the ſiege of Fredericſhal, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded, as I have already mentioned, by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have already ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given the ſubſtance of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband, when they entered upon the exerciſe of government. Their firſt care was to make a peace with Great-Britain; which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed a dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the Hats; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was, at the ſame time, the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp; prince Frederic of Heſſe-Caſſel, nephew to the king; the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Points. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubec, as their hereditary prince, and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic

Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to drop all the effects of his resentment, and the indignity done his son. The prince successor married the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia; and entered into the possession of his new dignity, which has proved to him a crown of thorns, in 1751. The reader, from what has been already premised, can be at no loss to know the sequel of the Swedish history to this present time.

GREAT RUSSIA, or MUSCOVY, in Europe.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1500	between	23 and 65 east long.
Breadth 1100		47 and 72 north lat.

Divisions and name. ACCORDING to the most authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it consists of fifteen (Mr. Voltaire says sixteen) provinces, or governments; besides part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, and Livonia, which were conquered from Sweden.

The following are the dimensions of it, given us by Templeman.

	Russia.	Square miles.	Length.	Brdth.	Chief cities.
Greek Church	Rus. or Mus.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow,
	Belgorod,	72,900	475	285	Waronetz,
	Don Cossacks,	57,000	400	280	Panchina,
	Uk. Cossacks,	45,000	330	205	Kiow,
	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola,
Conquered from Sweden since 1700.	Finland,	41,310	320	180	Petersburg,
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga,
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	Notteburg.
	Total—	1103,485			

The reader, however, is to observe, that the knowledge the public has of this empire, is but lately acquired; and is still so doubtful, that it is very difficult to fix even the limits between the European and Asiatic Russia. As to the names of Russia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the antient inhabitants, the Russi, or Borussi, and the river Mosca, upon which the antient capital Moscow was built; but of this we know nothing certain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muſcovy a vaſt diverſity of ſoil as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be ſeen and felt in this vaſt empire. The quickneſs of vegetation here, is pretty much the ſame as has been deſcribed in Scandinavia. The ſnow is the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces a vaſt number of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture; and ſupplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors, down to the preſent empreſs, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vaſt fertility in ſome provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The vaſt communications, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerve to ſupply one province with thoſe products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. The Zimnopoias mountains, which lie in this empire, are thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the antients. The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of above 2000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea: it is not only reckoned the largeſt, but one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe: it produces all kinds of fiſh; and fertilizes all the lands on each ſide with the richeſt trees, fruits, and vegetables. The Don, or Tanais, which divides

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the moſt eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia; and in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacks, and that of the Nagaiſch Tartars, which falls into the Euxine, or Black-ſea, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance.

As to foreſts, they abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and north-eaſtern provinces, are in a manner deſart; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans. Upon the whole, Muſcovy is in general a flat level country.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. } Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces; to which we muſt refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; and makes prey of every creature it can maſter: they are ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed, afford their furs for cloathing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes, and ermine, are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Ruſſia. Czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are but ſmall; as are their cows and ſheep, which they ſalt for their winter proviſions.

We know of few or no birds in Ruſſia, that have not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes; only the Ruſſians are better provided than their neighbours are with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and belagas: the latter reſemble a ſturgeon, and is from twelve to fifteen feet in length; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the ſturgeon and the belaga, the Ruſſians make the famous cavear; ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads.

POPULATION, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. } Nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors, of the population of this

this vaſt empire; the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is ſurprizing that ſuch a miſtake ſhould have continued ſo long, when we conſider the immenſe armies brought into the field by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Aſia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire is, perhaps, the firſt author who has attempted to undeceive the public in this reſpect; and has done it upon very authentic grounds, by producing a liſt, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amount to ſix million, ſix hundred and forty-ſix thouſand, three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, nor boys born between the making of one regiſter of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads ſubject to be taxed, including women and girls, we ſhall find near twenty millions of ſouls. To this account may be added three hundred and fifty thouſand ſoldiers, and two hundred thouſand nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewiſe exempted from the poll-tax; as alſo (ſays Mr. Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Coſſacs, the Calmucs, and other Tartars; the Samojedes, the Laplanders, the Oſtiacs, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this liſt. Upon the whole, this writer does not exaggerate, when he affirms, that the inhabitants of Ruſſia do not amount to fewer than twenty-four millions.

As her imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias poſſeſſes many of the countries from whence the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire iſſued, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that her dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent; twenty-four millions being but a thin population for the immenſe tracts of country ſhe poſſeſſes. As the like decreaſe of inhabitants is obſervable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reaſon in natural cauſes, which we cannot diſcuſs here. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall-pox and the venereal diſeaſe, may have aſſiſted in the depopulation; and it is likely, that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the north, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the wo-

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men think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for ſo long a time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but in the late war with the king of Pruſſia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; and on ſuch occaſions they appear to be void of the ſenſations to which other people are ſubject, eſpecially in the meanneſs of their repaſts, and hardneſs of their fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs; no fewer than 4000 brandy-ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, lived in a continued ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication; and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity preſented themſelves upon the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was by far the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays that he could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of thoſe, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, little better than beaſts of burden to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The other improvements, in learning and the arts, which he made, ſhall be mentioned elſewhere. The Ruſſians, before his days, had not a ſhip upon their coaſts. They had no conveniencies for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent, a French or Engliſh gentleman may make a ſhift to live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia, as in any other part of Europe. Their ſtoves which they make uſe of, diffuſe a more equal and genial warmth than our grates and chimnies. Their polite aſſemblies have, ſince the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, been put under proper regulations; and few of the antient uſages remain, but ſuch as are of public utility, and adapted to the nature of their country. It is, however, to be obſerved, that notwithſtanding the ſeverity of Peter, and the

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prudence of ſucceeding governments, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among all ranks; nor are even prieſts or ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

It is commonly thought that the Ruſſian ladies are as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families, as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they think themſelves ill treated if they are not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſent to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is examined ſtark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defects they find in her perſon. On her wedding day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even by the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage contract.

Funerals.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſt, a prieſt is hired to pray for his ſoul, to purify it with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water, while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by the biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin, the company returns to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication; which laſts, among the better ſort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a prieſt every day ſays prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer, in his long journey, to the place of his deſtination after this life.

Punishments.] The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts

parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay, thouſands at a time. The ſingle and double knoute were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knoute, the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it ſhould ceaſe. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the late empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the neceſſity of thoſe tortures. From theſe particulars, many have concluded that the feelings of the Ruſſians are different from thoſe of mankind in general.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Nothing ſtrikes, either a reader or a ſtranger, more than the facility with which the Ruſſians perform the longeſt and moſt uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, already deſcribed, they travel in ſledges drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia, horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way, towards February, becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the ſledges, in which they travel night and day; ſo that they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburg and Moſcow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majeſty, in her journies, is drawn in a houſe which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies for four people, by 24 poſt-horſes; and the houſe itſelf is fixed on a ſledge.

COSSACS, AND OTHER NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA. As the preſent ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Ruſſian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Ruſſian armies; but they now make excellent ſoldiers. Other Ruſſian Tartars retain their old wandering

lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Zeremisses and Morduars; a peaceable industrious people. The Baskirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Casan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Calmucs occupy the rest of this tract to Astracan and the frontiers of the Usbecs; and in consideration of certain presents they receive from her imperial majesty, they serve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends as foes.

As the Cossacs make now a figure in the military history of Europe, some account of them may not be unacceptable. They were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukrain as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circasky, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects of the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the antient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation chuse a chief, whom they call Hetman, and he resides at Circaska; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hetman holds his authority during life. He acts as a superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely under Peter the Great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that in 1654, the Cossacs of the Ukrain put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman, Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles. He brought

brought over, however, ſome of the Zaparovian Coſſacs, who are ſettled about the falls of the river Nieper, but moſt of them were cut in pieces.

The Ruſſians were formerly noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign parts. This, however, was only the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majeſty even intereſts herſelf in the education of young men of quality, in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet. No people have ſhewn a greater adventuring ſpirit than the Ruſſians; witneſs the diſcovery of Kamtſchatka, a country ſo little known, that it is doubtful to what quarter of the globe it pertains; but it certainly bids the faireſt of any country in the world, to lie contiguous to America: and perhaps it may ſoon appear, that the Kamtſchadales and the Americans are the ſame.

The beſt account we have of Kamtſchatka is from Mr. Steller and Mr. Kraſheninicoff, the latter of whom publiſhed their diſcoveries, under the ſanction of the Peterſburgh academy. The Kamtſchadales, from being a people as wild as their country, are now in a fair way of becoming good Chriſtians. They travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs and all, coſts in that country 4 l. 10 s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they were Chriſtians. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance; and extremely ſingular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments. They ſeem to be of Tartar original; and before they were humanized, their appearance and manners partook ſtrongly of thoſe of the Eſquimaux in North America.

The Siberians are another nation of Ruſſia, whoſe uſages deſerve to be mentioned; but we know leſs of them, than we do of the Kamtſchadales. Many of them, as has been already hinted, are ſtill groſs pagans; and their manners were ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. The Mahommetan Tartars form a conſiderable part of the natives: and according to the lateſt accounts, nature has been ſo kind to the country, that an exile to Siberia will hereafter be but a very ſlight puniſhment.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be diſcuſſed here. It is ſufficient to ſay, that they deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly; an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for their ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments and Trinity. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhewed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more, than the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church; and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend for ſubſiſtence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female, or nun, till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without the expreſs permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as I have already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahommetans, and more of them no better than pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Ruſſia, is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, however, and the moſt learned of their clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek; and they who know that language in its purity, are at no loſs for underſtanding it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have thirty-ſix letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Ruſſians, hitherto, have made but an inconſiderable appearance in the republic of letters;

letters; but the great encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the inſtitution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal at the late opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, is an evidence, that the Ruſſians are as capable as any of their neighbours to ſhine in the arts and ſciences.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries; who furniſh medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this city.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS.] Peterſburgh naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation, by being informed that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulph. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of two ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo wateriſh and ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into too minute a deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it extends about ſix miles every way; and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. It may appear ſurprizing, that the lateſt authors who treat of that country, differ widely as to the population of Peterſburgh. Voltaire tells us, that it is ſaid to contain at preſent 400,000 ſouls. This ſeems to be an overrate, even admitting the imperial troops, attendants, and officers of ſtate to be included. Buſching, whom I am rather inclined to follow, thinks that Peterſburgh conſiſts of about

8000 houſes, and contains about 100,000 inhabitants: a number, however, that would ſeem to be diſproportioned to that of the houſes, did we not reflect on the great number of ſervants maintained by the Ruſſian nobility and merchants. The new ſummer palace is reckoned one of the fineſt pieces of architecture in Europe. In the middle of the city (which has neither gates nor walls) is a ſtrong, beautiful fort; and the admiralty and dock-yards are likewiſe well fortified.

As Peterſburg is the emporium of Ruſſia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer time is ſurpriſing. In winter, 3000 one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It contains twenty Ruſſian, and four Lutheran churches, beſides thoſe of the Calviniſts and Roman-Catholics; and is the ſeat of a univerſity, and ſeveral academies. Peterſburgh is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55 45, about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London; and though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very picturesque appearance, for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The antient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Buſching gives us any ſatisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profeſſion. Buſching ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on. It is generally agreed, that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three places or ſquares. Buſching makes the merchants exchange to contain about 6000 fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially to and from China. No city diſplays a greater contraſt than Moſcow, of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are ſpacious and lofty. The Krimlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it lies in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old

imperial palace, pleaſure-houſe, and ſtables, a victualling-houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Krimlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt, or covered with ſilver: the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with forty-eight lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would ſcarcely ſuffice to recount the other particulars of this city's magnificence. Its ſumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble ſtructures. The public is no ſtranger to the barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Baſilides ordered the architect of the church of Jeruſalem to be deprived of his eye-ſight, that he might never contrive its equal. The ſtory is improbable, and took its riſe from the arbitrary diſpoſition of that great prince. I ſhall have occaſion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moſcow; where the inhabitants are ſo diſtractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in the Krimlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is ſeen at the famous Holy Houſe of Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moſcow at the time he was building Peterſburgh; for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was the Engliſh ambaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes were computed at 40,000. Voltaire ſays, that Moſcow was then twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000; but it is almoſt impoſſible to make an eſtimate of its preſent population.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruſſia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. I have already hinted at the paſſion the Ruſſians have for bell-ringing; and we are told, that the great

bell of Moſcow, the largeſt in the world, weighs 443,772 pounds weight; and was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne; but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broke out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. The building of Peterſburgh, and raiſing it of a ſudden from a few fiſhing-huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curioſity hardly to be paralleled ſince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Kronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburgh, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city imployed, for ſome years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could not be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he wrought in perſon in all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE AND POLITICAL INTERESTS. I have joined theſe two articles under one head, becauſe ſuch is the ſituation and ſtrength of Ruſſia, that ſhe has nothing either to hope or to fear but from commerce. It is true, her territories are acceſſible on the ſide of Poland, and therefore it is her intereſt to preſerve a ſtrong party in that country; but even this policy has commerce chiefly for its object, becauſe the greateſt part of the Diſſidents of Poland are the only traders in that great country; and three-fourths of them being of the Greek church, conſider her imperial majeſty as their patroneſs and protector.

In treating of the Ruſſian commerce, former accounts are of little ſervice at this time, becauſe of its great improvements and variations. By the beſt and ſureſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to four millions of rubles; and her imports do not exceed three millions; ſo that the balance of trade is yearly 225000 l. ſterling in her favour. This calculation, however, is ſubject to ſuch uncertainties as time alone can remove, ariſing from Ruſſia's commercial connections with Great-Britain, from whom, about fourteen years ago, ſhe gained the greateſt part of that balance. Great-Britain, however, has, within that time, given ſuch encouragement to her American colonies, and to the Scotch and Iriſh linen manufactures, that her imports from Ruſſia are greatly diminiſhed. On the other hand, the vaſt advantages which by later treaties between England and Ruſſia, her imperial

perial majesty has been enabled to acquire upon the Caspian sea, and in the inland parts of Asia, will probably more than counterbalance all the diminution which the Russian exports to Great-Britain may have suffered.

Russia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, ising-glass, linseed-oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hogs bristles, musk, rhubarb, and other drugs; timber, and also raw-silk from China and Persia.

Her foreign commerce is much encreased since her conquests from Sweden, especially of Livonia and Ingria; and since the establishing of her new emporium of Petersburgh; whereby her naval intercourse with Europe is made much more short and easy.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, silks, cotton, gold, &c. To Bochara, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandize, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; and also from the annual fair at Samarcand: she likewise trades to Persia, by Astracan, cross the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White-Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Russia had with the rest of Europe; but it was subject to a long and tempestuous voyage. This town is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth: built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of the trade of Archangel, by building Petersburgh, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandize.

The late and present empresses of Russia, were so sensible of the benefits arising to commerce through peace, that they seem to have postponed other valuable interests to that consideration; witness the sacrifices made by the empress Elizabeth, to preserve the tranquillity of the north, in settling the Swedish succession; and the moderation which her present majesty observed in her son's claims upon Denmark for the duchy of Holstein when her husband died. This difference, however, if not prudently prevented, may, some time or other, kindle a general flame in the north, if not all over Europe.

CONSTITUTION, LAWS, AND DISTINCTIONS OF RANK. The constitution and laws of Russia, like those of other arbitrary governments, rest in the breast of the sove-

reign. The ſubjects, however, had ſome general rules to guide them, both in criminal and civil matters, which always took place, when no interpoſition of government happened to ſet them aſide. The czar Alexis, who mounted the throne in 1645, drew up an imperfect code of laws; but he never could ſufficiently enforce them, being perpetually engaged in war, either foreign or domeſtic; ſo that they became in a manner uſeleſs or unknown. Even Peter the Great never could bring his ſubjects into that ſtate of civilization as to truſt them with any law but his own will. In matters of importance, ſuch as the trying and condemning his ſon to death, he generally appointed a commiſſion, with ſome perſon of diſtinction at its head, for trying them; but this was only to ſave the appearance of deſpotiſm; for the commiſſioners always pronounced judgment according to what they knew to be his ſentiments. The late empreſs, Elizabeth, made a law, but it only bound herſelf, that ſhe would ſuffer no capital puniſhments to be inflicted in her reign. Were not the fact undoubted, poſterity could not believe, that one of the moſt extenſive governments in the world could ſubſiſt in peace and tranquillity within itſelf, under ſuch an exception of juſtice. The truth is, the dreadful puniſhments incurred by delinquents, though not capital, were ſufficient to deter them. Upon the whole, the virtues of the Ruſſian ſovereigns, ſince Peter's time, have ſupplied the deficiency of their laws.

The Ruſſian monarchy is hereditary, but after a particular mode; for the ſenate and the great lords make themſelves judges of the proximity of blood in their ſovereigns; as may be ſeen in their hiſtory. The preſent empreſs was raiſed to the throne, by being wife to the emperor, and mother of his ſon; and ſhe has ſufficiently juſtified the partiality that has been ſhewed her, by the wiſdom, patriotiſm, and vigour of her government; but in nothing ſo much as in her care to give her ſubjects a new code of laws. With this view, in 1768, ſhe aſſembled deputies from all the diſtricts and provinces of her dominions, ſo as to form, in effect, a Ruſſian parliament. When they were met, they were preſented with inſtructions, which contained her ideas of diſtributive juſtice; and which do the higheſt honour to her political and perſonal virtues. The code which has been drawn up, has not yet been made public, at leaſt to the reſt of Europe; but there can be no doubt that it is highly worthy of its imperial patroneſs.

The diſtinctions of rank, form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſſes took the title of Autocratrix, which implies, that they owed their dignity to no

no earthly power. Their antient nobility were divided into knezes or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till they were reduced by the czar; but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their antient power, that the preſent and late empreſſes have introduced among their ſubjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

A ſenate, compoſed of the moſt reſpectable members of the empire, ſtill ſubſiſts in Ruſſia; but though the empreſs treats the inſtitution with the higheſt regard and deference, and ſubmits the greateſt concerns of her empire to their deliberation, yet they are no better than her privy council; and they ſeldom or never give her any advice, but ſuch as is conformable to her pleaſure.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her preſent imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which can ſcarcely be reckoned at leſs than four millions ſterling annually. When the reader conſiders this ſum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great-Britain, he will find it a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the late and preſent empreſs, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do I find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that in 1735, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total amounted to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to about 4s. 6d. ſterling.) This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 339,500, as well ſea as land forces. The other expences, beſides the payment of the army and navy of her preſent majeſty, the number and diſcipline of which are at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, is very conſiderable. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſts her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expences of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies; which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterprize undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy, however, are taxed in Ruſſia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed at little or no expence *, and, while in their own country, ſubſiſted chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people, according to their internal valuation.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent, were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered with Samarcand, in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire, than any mentioned by hiſtory; and nothing is more certain, than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princeſs of this country, called Olha, is ſaid to have been baptized at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the

* On my return (ſays a late traveller through Ruſſia) from Tobolſky to St. Peterſburgh, going into a houſe where I was to lodge, I found a father chained to a poſt in the middle of his family: by his cries, and the little regard his children paid to him, I imagined he was mad; but this was by no means the caſe. In Ruſſia, people, who are ſent to raiſe recruits, go through all the villages, and pitch upon the men proper for the ſervice, as butchers, in all other parts, go into the folds to mark the ſheep. This man's ſon had been ſelected for the ſervice, and made his eſcape, without the father's knowledge; the father was made a priſoner in his own houſe; his children were his gaolers, and he was in daily expectation of receiving his ſentence. I was ſo much ſhocked with this account, and with the ſcene I beheld, that I was forced to ſeek another lodging immediately. Happy England!

the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptize the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubjected by the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Baſilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod; from whom he is ſaid to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and ſilver.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Caſan and Aſtracan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, i. e. great prince, great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tzar, or as we call it, czar, was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns, but it ſeems to have been of Perſian or Aſiatic original; becauſe, at firſt, it was applied only to Caſan, Aſtracan, and the Aſian Siberia. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled up by a ſet of weak cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, whoſe information I prefer, as it ſeems to be the moſt authentic, aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince, who had eſcaped from his murderers; and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him) he drove out the uſurper, and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him, and he was murdered. Three other falſe Demetrius's ſtarted up one after another.

Theſe impoſtures prove the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were immerged. Their country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, ſo late as the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Udiſlaus, ſon

to

to Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended of the antient ſovereigns of Ruſſia, had been ſent ambaſſador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Ruſſian tyrants; and there he was detained priſoner, under pretence, that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in a nunnery, that they elected their ſon, Michael, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia; and being created patriarch by his ſon, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claims of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus, but ſubmitted to young Michael without any terms. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia, occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a kind of a breathing-time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. I find, that ſoon after the election of Michael, James I. of England ſent, at his invitation, Sir John Meyrick, as his ambaſſador to Ruſſia, upon ſome commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain ſum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predeceſſors. The Engliſh court, however, was ſo ignorant of the affairs of that country, tho' a Ruſſian company had been then eſtabliſhed at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of Great duke and lord of Ruſſia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which ſhews him to have been not only well acquainted with the intereſts of his own ſubjects, but the laws and uſages of nations. Before we take leave of Michael, who ſurvived his father, I am to mention the modes of the czar's nuptials, which I could not introduce into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of their ſubjects, and which are as follow. His czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by ſending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable

ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father who pleaſed Michael, was Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm, when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexis ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in the wars with the Swedes. When the grand ſignior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that his ſcymitar was as good as the grand ſignior's ſabre." He attempted to draw up a code of laws for the civil government of his ſubjects, which is ſaid to be ſtill in being. He cultivated a polite correſpondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambaſſadors not to kiſs the pope's toe. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions: and inſtead of putting to death or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. He died ſuddenly, at the age of 46, in the beginning of the year 1675, after ſhewing himſelf worthy of being father to Peter the Great.

Alexis left behind him three ſons and a daughter, who was a woman of great intrigue and ſpirit. The names of the ſons were Theodore, Iwan or John, and Peter, who was by a ſecond marriage. Theodore mounted the throne, and ſhewed excellent diſpoſitions for the improvement of his ſubjects; but his bodily infirmities prevented him from carrying them into execution. He died without any iſſue. His brother Iwan, being almoſt blind and dumb, and otherwiſe diſtempered, Theodore, before his death, named his younger brother, Peter, to the ſovereignty; though then only 10 years of age. This deſtination was diſpleaſing to the ambitious princeſs Sophia; and ſhe found means to excite a horrible ſedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the ſtanding army of Ruſſia. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright; and exerciſed the government herſelf, with the greateſt ſeverity and inhumanity; for all the Ruſſian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom ſhe ſuppoſed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The inſtances given by Voltaire, of her inhuman adminiſtration, are ſhocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the

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two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint ſovereigns, and their ſiſter their aſſociate and co-regent. Her adminiſtration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durſt ſhe venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other inſurgents. Finding this debility in her own perſon, ſhe intended to have married prince Baſil Galitzin, who is ſaid to have been a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and ſome learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter was now about 17 years of age, and aſſerted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moſcow; and upon Peter's publiſhing aloud, that a conſpiracy had been formed by his ſiſter to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or deſtroyed Sophia's party, and forced herſelf to retire to a monaſtery. Galitzin's life was ſpared, but his great eſtate was confiſcated; and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment, "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement czar, to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, allows thee three pence per day for thy ſubſiſtence." Upon the death of Iwan, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone.

It far exceeds the bounds preſcribed to this work, to give even a ſummary detail of this great prince's actions. They may be collected from the hiſtories of the northern nations, Poland, Germany, and other countries; ſome of which I have already exhibited, as I intend to do the reſt. All therefore that is neceſſary in this place, is to give a general view of his power, and the vaſt reformation he introduced into his dominions.

Peter, towards the end of the laſt century, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealouſy of his ſiſter, aſſociated himſelf with Germans and Dutch; the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and the latter, for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclinations for the arts were encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſes of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the inſolences of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He ſet out as an attendant upon his own ambaſſadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inſerted here. By working as a common ſhip-carpenter at

Deptford and Sardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and through the excellent diſcipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or cruſhed all civil inſurrections, but all his enemies on this ſide of Aſia; and at laſt he even exterminated, all but two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land; and the many defeats which he received, eſpecially by Charles XII. at Narva, ſeemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he loſt rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage: and the generous friendſhip he ſhewed to Auguſtus, king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank, diſtinct from merit; and he at laſt married, by the name of Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh ſoldier; becauſe, after long cohabitation, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul formed to execute his plans, and to aſſiſt his counſels. Catharine was ſo much a ſtranger to her own country, that her huſband afterwards diſcovered her brother, who ſerved as a common ſoldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which ſucceeded one another after the battle of Pultowa with Charles XII. were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himſelf with equal aſſiduity, as I have already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences: and, upon the whole, he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion, even in Europe itſelf, that he may be ſaid at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the moſt powerful prince of his age.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldeſt ſon, who was called the czarewitz, and who marrying without his conſent, entered, as his father alledged, into ſome dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a ſovereign ſo deſpotic as Peter was, we can ſay nothing as to the juſtice of the charge. It was, undoubtedly, his will, that the young prince ſhould be found guilty; but he died, as is ſaid, of a fever, before his ſentence was put into execution, in 1722. Peter then ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame magnificent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and to be recognized as his ſucceſſor; which ſhe accordingly was, and mounted the Ruſſian throne. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to the czarewitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during the ſhort reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the diſgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff,

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the favourite general in the two late reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe. Peter died of the ſmall-pox in 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Ruſſian ſenate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide the order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of Peter was now extinguiſhed; and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to his eldeſt daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown: but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne with Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldeſt brother; though her eldeſt ſiſter, the ducheſs of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was proſperous and glorious; for though ſhe accepted of the crown under limitations that were derogatory to her dignity, yet ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dolgoruki family, who had impoſed upon her the limitations, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece, the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, was, by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, and unpopular among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburgh to arreſt Biron; who was tried, and condemned to die, but was ſent in exile to Siberia.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of their German connections, diſagreeable, not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was declared and proclaimed empreſs of the Ruſſias; and the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, her huſband, and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed, as has been already hinted, capital puniſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation till her time unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time ſhe puniſhed the counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and ſettled, as we have

have already ſeen, the ſucceſſion to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the moſt equitable foundation. Having glorioufly finiſhed a war, which had been ſtirred up againſt her, with Sweden, ſhe replaced the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, who was deſcended from her elder ſiſter, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand duke of Ruſſia; and ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, ſhe called him to her court; where he renounced the ſucceſſion to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, by whom he had a ſon, who is now heir to the Ruſſian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great-Britain, at the expence of a large ſubſidy; but many political, and ſome, as is ſaid, private reaſons, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the ſucceſs of the war, which was in disfavour of Pruſſia, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conqueſts were ſuch, as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was ſaved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand prince of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein: a prince whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have ſurmounted the effects even of thoſe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruſſia; but it is ſaid, that he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. His memory has been likewiſe accuſed of certain domeſtic infidelities, which were too provoking for a ſpirited princeſs to bear. Whatever there may be in thoſe ſuggeſtions, it is certain that an univerſal conſpiracy was formed againſt him, and that he ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived while under an ignominious confinement. That his conduct with regard to Pruſſia, was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition, ſeems pretty evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who was his own wife, and now reigns by the title of Catharine III. That princeſs, with regard to Pruſſia, trod in her huſband's ſteps, and now follows the plan he chalked out. The moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrence of her

her reign hitherto, is the death of prince Iwan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, and, while he was in his cradle, emperor of Ruſſia. That prince loſt his life in an ill-concerted conſpiracy, which had been formed by ſome private officers, to raiſe him to the throne.

As the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Ruſſia, her preſent imperial majeſty took a great concern in raiſing that king to the throne, and in ſecuring the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of the Poliſh republic. The umbrage which her armies gave to the Roman-catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, produced firſt a civil war, and then confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The Ottoman court, who had been long waiting for ſuch an opportunity, availed itſelf of the occaſion; they impriſoned, contrary to the law of nations, the Ruſſian miniſter at Conſtantinople, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched 500,000 troops to the confines of Poland and Ruſſia.

Hoſtilities are now begun between theſe rival and mighty empires. The Ruſſian arms have been victorious by ſea and land, and the Turkiſh greatneſs has received a ſhock which ſeems to threaten an abridgment, if not the total diſſolution of their power in Europe. In this quarrel the other nations of Europe have remained neutral. How far the riſing greatneſs of the Ruſſians may be conſiſtent with the commercial intereſt of England, and the ballance of power eſtabliſhed at the expence of ſo much blood and treaſure, is a queſtion which we ſhall leave to the ſpeculation of politicians.

SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

I Shall, according to the general plan I have laid down, treat of the iſlands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the deſcription of that antient kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, I ſhall comprehend under one head, thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſlands of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude; and are part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades, or Orkney iſlands, lie north of Dungſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by Pentland Firth.

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The weſtern iſles are very numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituate between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of thoſe iſlands, the air being keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; ſo that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſlands they ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſummer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other, and with the continent: the reſt of the year, however, they are almoſt inacceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May, for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England the preceding November; and, probably, would have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, which are forty-ſix in number, (though many of them are uninhabited) is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at Midſummer, and their fiſhing ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney iſlands, which are about thirty in number, (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled) is called Pomona. Its length is twenty-four miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, nine. It contains nine pariſh churches, and four excellent harbours.

The iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and, in ſome places, almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſhes, and a caſtle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are, Lewis, or Harries, (for they both form but one iſland) which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long, and, in ſome places, 30 broad; fruitful, and well peopled. Bute, which is about 10 miles long, and 3 or 4 broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran, form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jura, are part of Argyleſhire, but they have no towns worthy notice. North

Wift contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fifhing. I fhall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides iflands, which are at prefent of fmall importance, either to the public or the proprietors; though, probably, they may, in future times, be of great confequence to both, by the very improveable fifheries upon their coafts. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous ifle of Iona, once the feat and fanctuary of weftern learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is ftill famous for its reliques of fanctimonious antiquity, as fhall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to defcribe the ifland of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reafon, that I can difcover, but becaufe it is the remoteft of all the north-weft iflands, and very difficult of acceis; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are proteftant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE AND RELIGION. It is not to be imagined, that the inhabitants of the iflands belonging to Scotland, can be fo minutely defcribed here, as they have been by fome other authors; not fo much on account of their importance, as their curiofity. Thofe of Shetland and Orkney were formerly fubject to the crown of Denmark, who pledged them, and in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland. The ifles of Shetland and Orkney form a ftewarty, or fhire, which fends a member to parliament. At prefent, the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland, only, perhaps, they are more honeft and religious. Men of fortune there, have improved their eftates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families all the luxuries and elegancies that are to be found at the tables of their Engliih and Scotch neighbours. They build their dwelling, and other houfes, in the moft faihionable taite; and are remarkable for the fineneis of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheefe, fifh, fea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geefe; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, fo as to give it a vinous quality. In fome of the northern iflands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norfe language, is ftill fpoken. Their vaft intercourfe with the Dutch, during the fifhing feafon, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney iflands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already defcribed, in feizing the nefts of fea-fowls, who build in the moft frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preferves them from many diieafes known to luxury. They cure the fcurvy and the jaundice, to which they are fubject,

ject, with the powder of ſnail-ſhells and ſcurvy-graſs, of which they have plenty. Their religion is proteſtant, according to the diſcipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil inſtitutions are much the ſame with thoſe of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned as to the population of thoſe three diviſions of iſlands. We have the moſt undoubted evidences of hiſtory, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now; for the Hebrides themſelves were known often to ſend 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At preſent, their numbers are ſaid not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are cloathed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders, who ſhall hereafter be deſcribed. They are ſimilar in perſons, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, and prejudices; but with this difference, that as the more poliſhed manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands, perhaps the deſcendents of the antient Caledonians, in a few years, will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the antient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; but with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the antient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory; and are the hiſtorians, or rather the genealogiſts, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dreſt in the manner, but more ſumptuouſly than the Engliſh minſtrels of former times *. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among thoſe iſlanders, ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors, and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connections, which experience has ſhewn to be ſo dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders, already deſcribed; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, butter-milk, and

* See Percy's Reliques of antient Engliſh Poetry, in 3 vols.

whey; and, when they chuſe it, plenty of mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn, which is an enemy to induſtry, and indeed to domeſtic and perſonal cleanlineſs. The agility of both ſexes in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this ſubject, ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of the ſecond ſight. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of the inſtances of this kind that have been brought by creditable authors, as to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond-ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however, from the beſt information, obſerve that any two of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and forms of thoſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and over-heat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to prophecy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that amidſt many thouſands of predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe being well atteſted, gave a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides being the moſt weſterly iſlands where the Celts ſettled, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though very plauſible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as cuſtoms, are there found; but a vaſt intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whoſe language is mixed with the Sclavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the oppoſite coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendents of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides, is chiefly preſbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the church of Scotland; but popery and ignorance ſtill prevail among ſome of the iſlanders, whilſt ſu-

perſtitious practices and cuſtoms ſeem to be almoſt grafted in their nature.

SOIL, MINES AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philoſophy to account for the reaſon, yet it is certain that the ſoil both of the northern and weſtern iſlands belonging to Scotland, has ſuffered an amazing alteration. It is evident to the eye-ſight, that many of thoſe iſlands have been the habitations of the Druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible in moſt of them; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees, however, are diſcernible, as are many veſtiges of grandeur, even ſince the admiſſion of the Chriſtian religion; which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power, and population, of the inhabitants. Experience daily ſhews, that if the ſoil of the northern and weſtern iſlands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-ſtuff, more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines; marl, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon thoſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water; and lakes, and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. The reader can eaſily ſuppoſe, that their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are the beſt in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; and their ſheep affords them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and even the linen manufacture makes no ſmall progreſs in thoſe iſlands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render thoſe iſlands at once ornamental and beneficial to their mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be ſaid on this head, that is peculiar to thoſe iſlands. In the countries already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more noble

and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The coaſts of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe 20 years, ſeemed, however, to have been created not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers. The latter furniſh the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburghers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } Thoſe iſlands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts, and other buildings both ſacred and civil, of what I have already obſerved, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of thoſe works are not eaſily accounted for at preſent. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of a hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf-ſtone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endleſs to recount the various veſtiges of the druidical temples remaining in thoſe iſlands, ſome of which have required prodigious labour, and are ſtupendous erections, of the ſame nature as the famous Stonehenge near Saliſbury, which I ſhall have occaſion to deſcribe: others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons, or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone ſtanding upright; ſome of them have been ſculptured, and others have ſerved as ſepulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in thoſe iſlands; and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might employ an able antiquary to deſcribe. The gigantic bones found in many burial places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of far larger ſize than the preſent. It is likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with thoſe parts.

The

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed, and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated isle of Jona, called St. Columb-Kill. We shall not enter into the history or origin of the religious erections upon this island; it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola 21 feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies that are discernible upon this island, and give countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was extinct in the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in those islands.

The islands belonging to Scotland, contain likewise some natural curiosities peculiar to themselves; the phaseoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is supposed, from the West-Indies, by the westerly winds, which often force ashore many curious shells and marine productions, highly esteemed by naturalists. In the parish of Harn, a large piece of stag's-horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce surprizing phenomena, which the natives believe to be supernatural.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY. See Scotland.

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 300	between	54 and 59	North latitude.
Breadth 150		1 and 6	Weſt longitude.

NAME.] THERE can be little doubt that the Scots were not the original inhabitants of this kingdom, which they invaded about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scot, is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian; being originally from that immenſe country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Eſcoſſe; by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh, Scotland.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh ſeas, or more properly, the Atlantic Ocean.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the counties ſouth of the Firth of Forth; the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the antient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires; are allotted to the ſouthern diviſion, and 15 to the northern; and thoſe counties are ſubdivided into ſherifdoms, ſtewarties, and bailiwicks, according to the antient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Counties and other ſubdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh	Mid-Lothian —	Edinburgh, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburg, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington	Eaſt-Lothian —	Dunbar, Haddington, and North-Berwick.
3. Merſe, antiently Berwick *	The Merches, and Lauderdale —	Duns, and Lauder.

* Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.	Counties and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
4. Roxborough	Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, Eſkdale and Euſdale	Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs.
5. Selkirk —	Ettrick Foreſt —	Selkirk.
6. Peebles —	Tweedale —	Peebles.
7. Lanerk —	Clydſdale ——	Glaſgow, W. lon. 4-5. N. lat. 55-52. Hamilton, Lanerk, & Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries —	Nithſdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annand.
9. Wigtown	Galloway, Weſt Part	Wigtown, Stanraer, & Whitehorn.
10. Kirkcudbright —	Galloway, Eaſt Part	Kirkudbright
11. Air —	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham —	Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton	Lenox — —	Dumbarton.
13. Bute and 14. Cathneſs	Bute, Arran, and Cathneſs —	Rothſay. Wick, N.lat. 58-40. and Thurſo.
15. Renfrew	Renfrew ——	Renfrew, Paiſley, Greenock, & Port-Glaſgow.
16. Stirling	Stirling ——	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow	Weſt Lothian —	Linlithgow, Burroughſtonneſs, and Queensferry.
18. Argyle —	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with Part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Iſla, Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Terif, Col, and Lifmore — —	Inverary, Dunſtaffnag, Killonmer, and Campbletown.
19. Perth —	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Glenſhield, and Raynork — —	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardin —	Merns — — —	Bervie, Stonhive and Kinkardin.
21. Aberdeen —	Mar, Buchan, Garioch and Strathbogie —	Old Aberdeen, W.lon. 1-40. N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Fraſerſburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Inverurie, Strathbogie, and Old Meldrum.

Shires.	Counties and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
22. Inverneſs —	Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, & Glenmoriſon —	Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, Boileau.
23. Nairne and 24. Cromartie —	Weſtern Part of Murray and Cromartie	Nairne, Cromartie.
25. Fife —	Fife ——	St. Andrews, Couper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt-Iſland, Dumfermlin, Dyſart, Anſtruther and Aberdour.
26. Forfar —	Forfar, Angus —	Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin
27. Bamff —	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Bucan	Bamff and Cullen.
28. Sutherland	Strathnaver and Sutherland —	Strathy and Dornoch.
29. Clacmanan & 30. Kinroſs —	Fife Part —	Culros, Clacmanan, Aloway and Kinroſs.
31. Roſs —	Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Iſle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarran, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald —	Taine, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſemarkie, and New Kelſo.
32. Elgin —	Murray & Strathſpey	Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney —	Iſles of Orkney and Shetland —	Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59-45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat. 61.

In all, thirty-three ſhires, which chuſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great-Britain; Bute and Cathneſs chuſing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmanan and Kinroſs.

The royal Boroughs which chuſe repreſentatives are,

Edinburgh — — —	1	Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Couper, and St. Andrews	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne	1	Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem — —	1
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and Forres — —	1	Dyſert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland —	1
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverury, and Kintore	1	Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Sterling	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothe, and Brechin	1		

Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton —	1	Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kirkcudbright —	1
Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwick, Lawder, and Jedburgh — — —	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranrawer, and Whitehorn	1
Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk — —	1	Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Campbeltown, and Inverary —	1

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER. The climate all over Scotland is, from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes, for the moſt part, agreeable and healthy, exempted from the inconveniences that attend the northern countries already deſcribed, and even thoſe of a more ſoutherly ſituation. The air is, in general, moiſt and temperate; but in the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, which are covered with eternal ſnow, it is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. In the northern parts daylight, at Midſummer, laſts 18 hours and 5 minutes; and the day and night in winter, are in the ſame proportion. Late experience has proved, that induſtry, and ſkilful agriculture, can render the ſoil of Scotland, in ſundry parts, as fruitful as that of England; though, perhaps, many of its vegetable and hortulane productions may not come ſo ſoon to maturity. The inequality of the ſoil of Scotland is ſurprizing; and cannot be accounted for by natural or apparent cauſes; ſome of the northern provinces being more fruitful and more early in their products than the ſouthern: but thoſe inequalities ſeem to be in common to all countries. The water of Scotland is pure, light, and eaſy to the ſtomach; and ſome mineral waters have been diſcovered.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian-hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-Hills, runs through Lothian and join thoſe of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, riſes near the eaſtern coaſt, and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Teviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, ſometimes go by the Celtic word Laws. Many of them are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particularized here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largeſt river in Scotland is the Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing by Stirling, after deſcribing a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm

arm of the German ſea to which it gives the name of Firth of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and, running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of Perth, and falls into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, running from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue themſelves at Aberdeen. The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and, after many beautiful ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick, where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eaſtern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has its riſe in Annandale, runs north-weſt through the valley of that name, and, after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Firth of Clyde, oppoſite to the iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſort, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſhes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers go by the name of Eſk, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greateſt improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in Great-Britain, is now (1771) carrying on at a very conſiderable expence, by a ſociety of public-ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication will be opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the immenſe advantage of the whole kingdom, as muſt be evident to every perſon who ſhall throw his eye upon the map of Scotland.

The lakes of Scotland (there called Lochs) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Thoſe called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Lochneſs, Loch Au, and one or two more, preſent us with ſuch pictureſque ſcenes as are not matched in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of thoſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſh. The Scots ſometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the ſea, for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long, and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings: the Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as ſome think, to the plant olorina, which grows in its waters, with a ſtrait ſtalk and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Lochneſs is a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake,

Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber, receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the antient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendents of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent upon, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coaſts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, and navigable bays or arms of the ſea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtoun Bay; ſometimes they are called Firths, as the Solway Firth, which ſeparates Scotland from England on the weſt; the Firth of Forth, Murray Firth, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt uncontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian Foreſt, the remains of which are now thought to be Etrick Wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, famous in antiquity for its being the harbour of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen in Scotland. Several woods, however, ſtill remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and founderies; but lying at a great diſtance from water-carriage, though the work ſucceeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir-trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth, but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at preſent boaſt of its gold mines, yet, it is certain, that it contains ſuch, or at leaſt that Scotland afforded a conſiderable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter and in the minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which, ſince that time, have never been recovered. Some ſmall pieces of gold

gold have been found in thoſe parts waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins ſtruck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver; but we know of no ſilver-mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vaſt emolument of the public. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort are conſtructed of the moſt beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel; however the taſte for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; allum-mines have been found in Bamffſhire; chryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in many parts of Scotland; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potters-clay, and fullers earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made uſe of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to taſte the ſweets, in their founderies and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. I have already obſerved that the ſoil of Scotland may be rendered in many parts as fruitful as that of England. Some large tracts of the low countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are far leſs exhauſted, and worn out than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſland; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands.

The

The merchants of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks, and marſhes, which being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted.

But the fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceiveable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly underſtood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved, of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In ſuch places, the huſbandmen barely exiſt upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30 l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean beyond expreſſion, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows, and planting, as adorn the country of England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, as occupying more room than what they call ſtone incloſures, which except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paultry walls, huddled up of looſe ſtones, without lime or mortar, which yields a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſturage. In the ſouthern counties the fineſt garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, fall little, if at all, ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; though it muſt be owned, that many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath. The ſea-coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe, or duliſh, a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and counties already deſcribed; but the Scots have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture, for ſocieties have been formed

formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bids fair to emulate, if not to excel, the Dutch themſelves, in curing, as well as catching, their fiſh. In former times, the Scots ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land, but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and ſucceſsfully as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets than the Engliſh or Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domeſtic animals that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouſe and heathcock, which is a moſt delicious bird, as likewiſe are the capperkaily, and the tarmacan, which is of the pheaſant kind; but thoſe birds are ſcarce even in the Highlands, and when diſcovered are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and ſheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into the country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on the ſouthern paſtures, are reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vaſt increaſe of manufacturers, whoſe demands for butchers meat muſt leſſen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horſes, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent; but the truth is, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland were unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſo that about the time of the union, few horſes, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the Engliſh and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper foods and management, but with what ſucceſs time alone can diſcover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls. This calculation reſts merely upon vague conjecture, as I know of no attempt that has

has been made to support even its probability. If we form an estimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The only records at present that can be appealed to, are those of the army; and, by the best information, they make the number of soldiers furnished by Scotland in the late war, which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to observe, that above 60,000 of these were raised in the islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions and a half, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we consult the most ancient and creditable histories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, must have been excessive, as it afforded so many thousands to fall by the swords of the English, without any sensible decrease (so far as I can find) of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of a characteristical feature, that of high cheek bones, reigns in their faces; lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring spirit was chiefly owing to their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother as head of the family with the inheritance, and left but a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this disparity of fortune among the sons of one family prevails in England likewise; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to those of a country so narrow, and so little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may easily perceive, that the ridiculous family pride which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which reigned there in all their horrors of blood and barbarity. Their family differences, especially the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and slaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. These passions did not live in the breasts of the common people only, for they were authorised and cherished by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had seen the world, were conversant in the courts of Europe, masters of polite literature, and amiable

in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, excepting ſome of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war, for in time of peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the moſt civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the ſovereign. Thoſe ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates, and they generally executed in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of out-vying each other, in the numbers of their followers, created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandiſement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility.

The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents, and to baniſh from them thoſe barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there ſcarce can be a doubt, that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

Some Scotch gentlemen, who at this day pique themſelves upon their family, or the antiquity of their deſcent, are the moſt dangerous as well as diſagreeable animals upon earth; becauſe, forgetting all the virtues of their anceſtors, they imitate them only in their capricious vanity and revenge. Thoſe who go abroad, and endeavour by induſtry to raiſe the lowneſs of their circumſtances, excel in all the ſocial, civil, commercial, and military duties. There is a kind of ſimilarity in their perſonal characters, and by ſeeing one Scotchman who acquires a fortune abroad, you ſee the whole. They are hoſpitable, open, communicative, and charitable. They aſſimilate to the manners of the people with whom they live, with more eaſe and freedom than the natives of moſt other countries; and they have a ſurprizing facility in acquiring languages, particularly the French.

It remains perhaps a queſtion, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmoſt ſervice to many of its natives. Their literature, however ſlight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the ſame time, it drained their nation of that order of men, who are the beſt fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

With

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon eſtates of 300 l. a year, and upwards, they differ little or nothing, in their manners, and ſtile of living, from their Engliſh neighbours of the like fortunes.

From what has been ſaid, it appears that the antient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners. The danger is, that it has been rather too rapid in a contrary extreme, before the reſources of the luxuries and conveniencies of life have been fully eſtabliſhed.

The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid œconomy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions, and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterprize; but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity and reſolution, with which they carry on any deſperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the ſtrongeſt temptations, ariſing from their poverty, is ſtill more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conſpiracies, witneſs that which put Porteus to death, in 1735, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midſt of 20,000 people; and, though the agents were well known, and ſome of them tried, with a reward of 500 l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found ſufficient to bring them to puniſhment. The fidelity of the Highlanders, of both ſexes, under a ſtill greater temptation, to the young Pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could ſcarcely be believed were it not well atteſted.

They affect a fondneſs for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond, perhaps, any people in the world; but this attachment is ſeldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or diſguſtful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of the antient Scotch diſhes, ſuch as the hoggice, the ſheep's-head ſinged, the fiſh in ſauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. Theſe diſhes, in their original dreſſing, were ſavoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery, have rendered them agreeable to the moſt delicate palates. The common uſe of oatmeal, undoubtedly, gave a hardneſs to the features of the vulgar of both ſexes,

beſides ſome other diſagreeable conſequences it was attended with; but theſe unfavourable characteriſtics will wear out, by the introduction of wheaten bread, which now abounds in Scotland. The exceſſive uſe of oat-meal accounts for the common obſervation, that the faces of the lower women in Scotland are commonly very coarſe; but it was owned at the ſame time, that among the higher rank of females, beauty was found in its utmoſt perfection. The reverſe has been remarked of a neighbouring nation.

The inhabitants of thoſe parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the ſubject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that though rendered more conformable to the rules of muſic, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtripped of that original ſimplicity, which however irregular, is their moſt eſſential characteriſtic which is ſo agreeable to the ear, and has ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively and merry ſtrain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs, by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſhood invented by his countrymen in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted long before Rizzio's arrival, in their church muſic; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was entirely employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland; but, were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the muſic itſelf is ſufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reaſon, they ſeem to enjoy them more completely. One inſtitution there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the antient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each gueſt pays according to his inclination or ability, but ſeldom under a ſhilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal, that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The

The common people of Scotland retain the ſolemn decent manner of their anceſtors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the pariſh beadle is ſent round with a paſſing bell; but he ſtops at certain places, and with a ſlow melancholy tone, announces the name of the party deceaſed, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers, and the deceaſed is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair poles, to the grave, where it is interred without any farther ceremony than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without the burial ſervice. The highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called coronachs, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs; the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen, is the Goff, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength: it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball; which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the Mall, which was common in England in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; and each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of Curling is likewiſe, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand, to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding ſummer and winter diverſions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, the cricket excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen look upon it as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place thoſe two articles under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very

fine, called *tartan*. This ſtuff conſiſts of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſets, of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which where ſkilfully managed, produce a wonderfully pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt, the Highlanders wear a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in antient ſtatues: ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leather belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupply the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a phelig, but which the Lowlanders call a kilt, and I make no doubt is the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt, and this they term the philibeg, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings were likewiſe of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet, brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dreſs) ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the antients, and thoſe of the Tuſcans, (who were unqueſtionably of Celtic original) as they are to be ſeen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs, rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government.

ment. Many efforts had been made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful, for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden, rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that ſome of the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and for its lightneſs and diſcumbrance, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time.

The dreſs of the higher and middling ranks in the Low-Country, differ little or nothing from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks are much the ſame in both kingdoms.

I have already mentioned the language of the Highlanders, eſpecially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, to be radically Celtic. The Engliſh ſpoken by the Scots, notwithſtanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more ſouthern counties, is written in the ſame manner in both kingdoms. At preſent, the pronunciation of a Scotchman does not differ ſo much from a Londoner, as that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somerſetſhire, and ſome parts of Worceſterſhire.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are pretty much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden: the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Hallifax in England to Scotland, by the regent earl of Morton, and it was hanſelled by his own execution.

RELIGION.] Antient Scottiſh hiſtorians, Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples of St. John the apoſtle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch hiſtorians call Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptized. It was further confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Diocleſian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed

by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves, from among their own body, but who had no pre-eminence or rank over the reſt of their brethren.

Thus independant of the church of Rome, Chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed as a national church, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at laſt prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkneſs which for many ages overſpread Europe; though their dependance upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, ſo late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the 14th century, when they diſappeared. But it is worthy of obſervation, that the oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther, and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the Reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England, was reſerved to the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts and ſciences began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and enquiring people, and gave riſe to the Reformation in Scotland; which began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length compleated through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrine of Calvin, and was become the apoſtle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that, upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out theſe poſſeſſions for themſelves, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which, through the fury of the mob, deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church livings,

livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any ſtruggle in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders, left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the preſbyterian clergy of vaſt importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that though no ſtipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay, that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment, at various periods, proved ſo tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes of life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. It is ſaid, that even that relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting-ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. In ſhort, the power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at leaſt very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predeceſſors. They have been, ever ſince the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes; but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's Prayer. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty for the uſe of the proteſtant ſchools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain, and the Weſtern Iſles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned

out funds for the ſupport of their widows and orphans. The number of pariſhes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than one miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſembly, which we may call the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. It conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from preſbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities. A preſbytery, conſiſting of under twelve miniſters, ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder: if it contains between twelve and eighteen miniſters, it ſends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters and two ruling elders: but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk-ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner, uſually a miniſter of their own body. The commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are often of the firſt quality of the country.

The king preſides by his commiſſioner (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets once a year: but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often create a confuſion; which the moderator, who is choſen by them to be as it were ſpeaker of the houſe, has not ſufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority to the general aſſembly. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent preſbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſible by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate to the ſynods, are preſbyteries, ſixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each conſiſting of a number of contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder, choſen half-yearly out of every kirk-ſeſſion, compoſe a preſbytery. Theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion; but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cognizance of all eccleſiaſtical cauſes and matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nomi-

nate or preſent in ſix months after a vacancy, otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſter, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act pretty much as church-wardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial truſt, and he is generally a lay perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. They are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion-table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching preſbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling-elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

It has already been obſerved, that the eſtabliſhed religion in Scotland is preſbyterian: that it was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and intolerance of popery, by its perſecuting ſpirit; but at preſent it is mild and gentle, and the moſt rational Chriſtian may accommodate himſelf to the doctrine and worſhip of the national church. It is to be wiſhed, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters. Theſe are induſtrious to fix upon the abſurdities (and what church is without them) of former divines and viſionaries, and eccleſiaſtical ordinances and diſcipline, which were found to be incompatible with the nature of government. A vaſt number of theſe ſeceding congregations are to be found in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers; though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they fly in the face of the civil power, or at leaſt the inſtances are rare and inconſiderable.

A different ſet of diſſenters in Scotland, conſiſts of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers and papiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the Reſtoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in

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general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recognize king William's title. The partizans of that unhappy prince retained the epiſcopal religion; and king William's government was ſo unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the epiſcopalians were more numerous in ſome parts than the preſbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of Toleration, as well attended. A Scotch epiſcopiſt thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themſelves ſo well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly; and in a few years they will, probably, be reduced to nothing. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland: the Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government.

The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries very inconſiderable in Scotland. If any remain, they are confined to the northern parts, and the iſlands: but they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhopries, St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhopries, which are, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brichin, Dumblain, Roſs, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Iſles.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for theſe 1400 years paſt. The weſtern parts and iſles of Scotland produced St. Patric, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland; and many others ſince, whoſe bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnanus, and other authors, who lived before, and at the time of the conqueſt of England, which are come to our hands, are ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, moſt unqueſtionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, ſettling, and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſeminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior

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in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard, and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity, have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſtile of Buchanan's hiſtory is to this day the moſt claſſical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes, are incomparably the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbariſms of thoſe ſent them in anſwer. This is at leaſt a manifeſt proof that claſſical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland, than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery, which in point both of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſton. And ſince his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with amazing ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico-mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning, has added the colours of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the ſubject is little ſuſceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man, to the level of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light thro' the world, which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His Treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe, as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometer no leſs famous, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſure, but almoſt deſerted tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpſon, ſo well known over Europe, for his illuſtration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and above all, his Conic Sections, are ſufficient of themſelves to eſtabliſh the literary reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not reſt on the character of a few mathematicians and aſtronomers. The fine arts have been called ſiſters to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connection between the ſciences, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematicks, and phyſicks, properly ſo called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of ſtudy

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to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie and White, hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners, who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius, and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon.

But of all literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called morals, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Next to the Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind, that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe the moſt uſeful ſupplement to that eſſay.

It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blaſt, nor time can deſtroy.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. Thoſe of St. Andrews, Aberdeen, Edinburgh, and Glaſgow.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this diviſion, which the bounds of our work oblige us to contract. This caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territories reached to the Firth of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle, and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the high-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides, north and ſouth. In former times the town was ſurrounded by water, excepting towards the eaſt; ſo that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted

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the idea of building very lofty houſes divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious for the uſe of a family; ſo that the high ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line, and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins to the city. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills, at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crouded population, however, was ſo ſhockingly inconvenient, that the Engliſh, who ſeldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepeſt impreſſions of Scotch naſtineſs, which became proverbial. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia, is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, as I have already obſerved, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holyrood-houſe. The inner quadrangular of this palace, was begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and undoubtedly one of the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at preſent nothing can be more uncomfortable than its ſituation, at the bottom of bleak unimproved craggs and mountains, with ſcarce a ſingle tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic

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architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of ſtone galleries ſupported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this antient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years ago, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's work, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a noble ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones, whom James VI. of Scotland brought over from Denmark, has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be ſeen in England. One Balquhanan, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is ſaid to have prevailed upon Jones to admit ſome barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have inſiſted that the ornaments of each ſhould be ſomewhat different from thoſe of the others. It is, notwithſtanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens, not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradeſmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days; they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural, and ſome literary curioſities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament-Square, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of this city; it is formed into

into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a very fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, is by many great judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation; in a room near it, sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, sherivalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the lawyers valuable library. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, being at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scotch history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals. Adjoining to the library, is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miserably dark and dismal. It is said that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and the papers in rooms far better suited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into two or three churches, and a room where the general assembly sits. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple is surmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to such buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deserves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the Exchange, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the vast improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. On the north side of the city, upon a rising ground, the nobility, gentry, and principal citizens, have begun to build what is to be called the New Town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses to be built of stone, of an equal height, in the most elegant taste, with all the conveniences that render those of England so delightful and commodious. The fronts of many already finished, are of ashler work, but such is the avarice of some individuals, that here and there this beautiful place is already disgraced with

buildings, raiſed up of rough unfiniſhed ſtone, though the difference of expence in that country is very inconſiderable.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open wall which encloſes it on the ſouth ſide, of a very modern fabric but in the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact, it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. A certain claſs of readers would perhaps think it unpardonable, ſhould I omit mentioning that Edinburgh contains a playhouſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and that concerts, aſſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailiffs, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon; and here are 14; namely, ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provoſt is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his majeſty's dominions, but at Edinburgh: they ſerve for the city watch, and patrole the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents: they are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes 16 companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a moſt judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burden. Its product, however, has been ſufficient to defray the expence of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and compleating other public works of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains nothing remarkable, but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame) fortified, and bravely defended by the French againſt the Engliſh, under Mary of Guiſe, and afterwards

afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are daily encreaſing; ſome of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. I cannot however avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopton-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, counted one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is for population, commerce, and riches, the ſecond city of Scotland, and, conſidering its ſize, the firſt in Great-Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtrait, well paved, and conſequently clean. Their houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them towards the center of the city are ſupported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the fineſt ſtile of architecture, and the cathedral is a ſtupendous Gothic building, hardly to be parallelled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a very fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a maſterly and a matchleſs fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow, in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the Reformers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town-houſe is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity is eſteemed the moſt ſpacious and beſt built of any in Scotland, and is at preſent in a thriving ſtate. In this city are ſeveral well endowed hoſpitals; and it is particularly well ſupplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of the moſt illuſtrious ſtranger. They are now building a handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde, and a large piece of ground is purchaſed near the croſs, where they intend to erect a magnificent Exchange; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize that, and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their vaſt commerce, both foreign and internal; which they carry on

with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants have been eſtimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the ſhire town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well built city, and has a good quay or tide-harbour: in it are three churches and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well frequented univerſity, and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the new by means of a long village, has no dependance on the other; it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of theſe two places there is a well endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other. Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic: it is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great-Britain, called the carſe of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay: it is a town of conſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings and peltry, to ſundry foreign parts: it has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the ſame county of Angus: the firſt has a great and flouriſhing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are upon the thriving hand.

It may be neceſſary again to put the reader in mind, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to Scotland, on account of its improving ſtate. I have rather under than overrated the number of inhabitants in the towns I have mentioned. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 ſouls, which is the common computation, to which I will along conform myſelf; but the influx of people, and the increaſe of matrimony in proportion to that of property, muſt create great alterations for the better, and few for the worſe, becauſe the inhabitants who are diſpoſed to induſtry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reaſon why I omit a particular deſcription of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paiſley, Sterling, and about 50 other burghs and towns of very conſiderable trade in Scotland.

The antient Scots valued themſelves upon their truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of

their country: this was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced; and indeed to this day their forts would make but a sorry figure, if regularly attacked. The castles of Edinburgh, Sterling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great strength, could not hold out 48 hours, if besieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the west Highlands, is sufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, as are Fort George and Fort Augustus, in the north and north-west; but none of them can be considered as defences against a foreign enemy.

I shall not pretend to enter upon a description of the noble edifices that have, within the course of this and the last century, been erected by private persons in Scotland, because they are so numerous, that to particularize them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is sufficient to say, that many of them are equal to the most superb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's surprize at this will cease, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapness of materials, where it can be gratified at so moderate an expence. This may likewise account for the stupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices which antiently abounded in Scotland; but at the time of the Reformation were mostly demolished to the ground, by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in these practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The Roman, and other antiquities found in Scotland, have of themselves furnished matter for large volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castellas, their pretentures or walls, reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some fresh discoveries, an account of them could afford no instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant; because at present they can be discovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief may, however, be proper. The course of the Roman wall, (or, as it is called by the country people, Graham's Dyke, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name first broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agricola, and compleated by Antoninus Pius, is still discernible, as are several Roman camps in the neighbourhood. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a striking remain of Roman antiquity. It is situated at Ardoch,

in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola before he fought the bloody battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three of them are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra: the prætorium is the place where the general's tent ſtood.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Sterlingſhire, but has been lately barbarouſly demoliſhed, by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole, it was one of the moſt compleat Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mounts of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis; which ſerve to evidence, that there was a kind of ſolemn compromiſe between the Romans and Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire farther to the northwards.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are eaſily diſcernible in ſeveral northern counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some houſes of ſtupendous fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire, but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scotiſh, does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts.

Two

Two Pictiſh monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland, one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus: both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without a ſtair-caſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn free ſtone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top. If thoſe columns are really Pictiſh, that people muſt have had among them architects that far exceeded thoſe of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman taſte of architecture. It is, however, difficult to aſſign them to any but the Picts, as they ſtand in their dominions; and ſome ſculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Chriſtian original. It is not indeed impoſſible that thoſe ſculptures are of a later date. Beſides thoſe two pillars, many other Pictiſh buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the ſame taſte.

The veſtiges of erections by the antient Scots themſelves, are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their hiſtory. That people had amongſt them a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five antient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with baſs-reliefs of men on horſe-back, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day, but minutely deſcribed by Mr. Gordon. Many other hiſtorical monuments of the Scots may be diſcovered on the like occaſions; but it muſt be acknowledged, that the obſcurity of their ſculptures have encouraged a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures, ſo that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable if I ſhould neglect to mention the ſtone near the town of Forreſs or Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (ſays Mr. Gordon) perhaps, one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part."

Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm a few years before the conqueſt of England by the Normans.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scotch antiquities, many druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the druidical erections in South-Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be a Britiſh erection, and the moſt beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world; it exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. It ſeems to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

Scotland affords few natural curioſities but thoſe we have already mentioned in deſcribing the lakes, rivers, and mountains. Mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like chryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea-ſhells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Roſsſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water oozing through a ſpungy porous rock on the top, doth quickly conſolidate after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have taken poſſeſſion of its deſcriptions and hiſtories, but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they are ſkilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeſhire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been the ſcenes of inhuman cruelties.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Scotland may hitherto be juſtly looked upon as a non-deſcribed country. All the writers, till within theſe few years, who have treated of that nation, repreſent it as being in the very ſame ſtate as a century ago. In this they are not to blame, becauſe the alteration which the people and country have undergone, has been inconceivably ſudden. Without entering into the diſputed point, how

how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on an Eaſt and Weſt-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterprize. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after receiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottiſh commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country ſuſtained, to the diſguſt the inhabitants conceived on that account, and ſome invaſions of their rights, which they thought inconſiſtent with the articles of union. The intails and narrow ſettlements of family eſtates, and ſome remains of the feudal inſtitutions, might contribute to the ſame cauſe.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſcovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſiderable object of governmental enquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance; and had he been a Scotchman, muſt have ruined his miniſtry. Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter, purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan: and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that Great Britain ever was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that whatever indecent and mean reſentments have been expreſſed by the refuſe of the Engliſh nation againſt the Scots, the latter have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament.

This is manifeſt in the extenſive trade they carry on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt-Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe 25 years paſt, has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange for thoſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and

and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries. their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation.

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts, for they have a vaſt concern in the whale fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fiſheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily encreaſing, open inexhauſtible funds of wealth; their cured fiſh being by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, preferred to thoſe of Newfoundland. The benefits of thoſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by other manufactures carrying on at land, particularly that of iron at Carron, in Sterlingſhire. Their linen manufactory, notwithſtanding a ſtrong rivalſhip from Ireland, ſupported underhand by ſome Engliſh, is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it, has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been ſaid ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburgs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000 l. excluſive of their home conſumption; and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are likewiſe making very promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make at preſent ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vaſt progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtones to account, by their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an encreaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow is the great emporium for the American commerce. I have already mentioned the great project now executing for joining the Forth to the Clyde, which will render the benefits of trade of mutual advantage to both parts of Scotland. In

ſhort,

ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley itſelf employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs works of every kind, delf houſes, and paper-mills are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting make neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as is found in any part of Europe. Even the fine arts begin to make ſome progreſs. An academy of painting, engraving, and ſtatuary, is eſtabliſhed at Glaſgow, under the patronage of ſeveral noblemen, gentlemen, and principal merchants. After all that has been ſaid, many years will be required before the trade and improvements of Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event, they never can give umbrage to the Engliſh, as the intereſts of the two people are, or ought to be the ſame.

Having ſaid thus much, I cannot avoid obſerving the prodigious diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the union, which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots muſt always be diſtreſt for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vaſt manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland, have wiſely abandoned French claret, (tho' too much of it is ſtill made uſe of in the country) and brandy, for rum, and the liquors produced in the Britiſh plantations; and their own malt liquors are now come to as great perfection as thoſe of England; and it has been ſaid, that of late they export large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland

as

as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner till after the Union of the two crowns, under her ſon James VI. when the vaſt reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court, occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which was double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, *bas piece*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation we have made of the Scotch ſhilling, holds of their pounds and marks; which are not coins, but denomination of ſums. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order, inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offenſive and defenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit*. None ſhall ſafely provoke me.

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] No government in Europe was better fitted for the enjoyment of liberty, than that of Scotland was by its original conſtitution; and if it was reprehenſible in any reſpect, it was that it left more freedom to the ſubject than is conſiſtent with civil ſubordination.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz.

"In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, that I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance, that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God, may ſhew mercy to me, and to you."

The

The parliament of Scotland antiently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors, it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even entruſted with the executive part of the government. And ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was cotemporary with and ſon-in-law to Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the acts ſtill extant. In ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt overgrown of his ſubjects: when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhewed a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by their clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. Theſe were choſen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance, choſe eight peers, and the peers eight biſhops; and thoſe ſixteen jointly choſe eight barons; (or knights of the ſhire) and eight commiſſioners for burghs; and to all thoſe were added eight great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; ſo that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the

the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged, that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem: even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles: and tho' Charles I. wanted to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how much better they underſtood the principles of liberty than the Engliſh did, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princeſs of Orange.

This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the Reſtoration. It is aſked, Why did they ſubmit to that tyranny? The anſwer is, In order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore choſe to ſubmit to a temporal evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers, in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary barons of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe, for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had the ſame deliberative and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the Reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, the reſcue of a great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, only met for the purpoſes of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great, were the lord high chancellor, high treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecre-

tary: the four leſſer were, the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice-clerk. Since the Union none of theſe continue, excepting the lords privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice-clerk; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The officers of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight marſhal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the ſame in England. The ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord-regiſter was head clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative, by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the numbers upon a diviſion. The lord-advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts for breaches of the peace; and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king, or his donator, has intereſt. Two ſollicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk, entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, while the juſtice-general, an office I ſhall deſcribe hereafter, is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex fæcialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being, and it was formerly an office of great ſplendour and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the caſe in England, in all armorial affairs might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy-council of Scotland before the revolution, had, or aſſumed inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is

now

now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great-Britain, and the civil and criminal cauſes there are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themſelves the names of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain. This court conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote, but have no ſalaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all matters of property that lie before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any enquiry how far ſuch an inſtitution, in ſo narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the ſecurity of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of ſurprize, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of their courts and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the union. This, however, can be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I ſhall juſt add, that the lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are ſometimes (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh parliament, to which an appeal lies.

The juſtice court is the higheſt criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord juſtice general, removeable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the juſtice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but, as I have already hinted, without any neceſſity of their being unanimous.

Beſides thoſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame power, authority, privilege, and juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewiſe competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exerciſe certain powers which

which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no advocation lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in such cases, is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000 l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland; we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally, though most absurdly, hereditable; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being there enacted, That all high-sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes, and stewart-deputes, it is enacted, That there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated

by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriffs courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewarts had much the same power in them, as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old, were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous, and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours, in the day time. These courts, however petty, were, in former days, invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland, answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise pretty much the same powers as those in England. In former times, their office, though of very old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman conquest of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at present much disused in Scotland.

From the above short view of the Scotch laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter alledge indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-

law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, with much better reaſon, and far greater appearance of truth, ſay, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extenſive, and before the Union they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners and merchants, by whom they were freighted; to manufacturers, ſuch as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fiſh, ſalmon, and herrings; to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities: the trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation: they fix the ſtaple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Camphere. Their conſervator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary: ſo that, in truth, the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very ſingular inſtitution, and ſufficiently proves the vaſt attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and conſtitution of Scotland, as they exiſt at preſent, in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to deſcend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch praticks; and their acts of ſederunt, anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeazances: their ponding of woods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries: and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, diſmiſs this head without one obſervation, which proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch

conſtitutions, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here tranſacted; judgements given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folc-mote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the firſt inhabitants; the Picts, undoubtedly, were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar; and who, ſettling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, who were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots, moſt probably, were a nation of adventurers from the antient Scythia, who had ſerved in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people, in proceſs of time, were ſubdued by the Scots.

Having premiſed thus much, it is unneceſſary for me to inveſtigate the conſtitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is ſufficient to add to what I have already ſaid upon that head, that they ſeem to have been as forward as any of their ſouthern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the antient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward, to the province of the Horeſti, which

which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the twenty-firſt in a lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant reſiſtance obliged Agricola himſelf, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretentures or walls, which will be deſcribed in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Chriſtian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were the deſcendents of the antient Britons, who had been forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the antient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scots monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe: but it broke out with more luſtre than ever under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called their groans, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up by the ſea, or periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians; for ſo all nations were called who were not Roman or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldeſt hiſtories, and thoſe that are leaſt favourable to monarchy, that the ſucceſſion to the crown of Scotland ſtill continued in the family of Fergus, but generally deſcended collaterally; till the inconveniencies of that mode of ſucceſſion were ſo much felt, that by degrees it fell into diſuſe, and it was at laſt ſettled in the right line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince ſo much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them,

which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an exiſtence. No fact of equal antiquity is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the vaſt dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already obſerved under the article of learning. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them, but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their name and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the eaſt; who being maſters of the ſea, harraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh, for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs, who then governed England, were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots; who maintained their freedom and independency, not only againſt foreigners, but againſt their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gællic words which ſignify a large head, but moſt probably his great capacity, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſecond from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakeſpear, who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wiſe and magnanimous prince, and in no reſpect inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſur-named the Outlaw, ſon to Edward Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Etheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter, Maud, was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious

glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, as it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwic, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother, Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. They were ſucceeded by Edgar, the ſon of Malcolm III. who was a wiſe and valiant prince; and upon his death, David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, yet David was, perhaps, the greateſt prince of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The noble actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power on an equality with that of England, when confined to this iſland. His actions and adventures, and the reſources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the firſt rank. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to conſider, theſe were the only means by which he could then civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon, Malcolm IV. and he, by William, ſur-named, from his valour, the Lyon. William's ſon, Alexander II. was ſucceeded, in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince, who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bare to him a daughter, named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole poſterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, becauſe it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandſon to David earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter, Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandſon to the

ſame earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which were not then ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed interregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England, the moſt politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome obſolete abſurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this, Edward uſed many bloody endeavours to annex their crown to his own; but tho' they were often defeated, the independent Scots never were conquered. They were indeed but few, compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame; and for ſome time were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted of a formal ſurrender of the crown from Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him; and moſt barbarouſly carried off, or deſtroyed, all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter-Abbey.

Thoſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward, finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, endeavoured to careſs them, and affected to treat them on the footing of an equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place, between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain; and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he had an eye upon the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared

declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen, for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body; ſo that Edward was obliged to divide it, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vaſt loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who moſt ungenerouſly put him to death at London as a traitor; but he died himſelf, as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed, according to the beſt hiſtorians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he aſſumed the crown; but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle at Methven. After this defeat, he fled, with one or two friends, to the Weſtern Iſles, and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible, as the courage with which he and his few friends (the lord Douglas eſpecially) bore them was incredible. Tho' his wife and daughter were ſent priſoners to England, where the beſt of his friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death, yet, ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Sterling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed ſtill than that of his father, to make a total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 300,000, but this

muſt be underſtood as including the foreigners attending the camp, which in thoſe days were very numerous; but it is admitted on all hands, that it did not conſiſt of ſo few as 100,000 fighting men, while that of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes who had been bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty hoſt towards Sterling, then beſieged by Bruce; who had choſen, with the greateſt judgment, a camp near Bannock-burn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned to be the beſt knight in Scotland; his nephew, Randolf, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was furious beyond diſpute, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories that is recorded in hiſtory. The great loſs of the Engliſh fell upon the braveſt part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in perſon againſt Bruce himſelf. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors loſt 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were either killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, which was immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots: and Edward himſelf, with a few followers, favoured by the goodneſs of their horſes, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314 *.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered they were by religious conſiderations, that in a letter they ſent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol, for debaſing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the

* That the Scots of thoſe days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes, may be ſeen from a ſcoffing ballad, made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows.

Maydens of England ſore may ye mourn,
For zour lemmons (laymens) zou have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low!
What ho! ween'd the king of England,
So ſoon to have won all Scotland.
With a rumby low!

the ſame by Robert if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died, he was acknowledged to be indiſputably the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon, David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law, and enemy, Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predeceſſors upon the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol, the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham; and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace, without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his worthleſs relations. Robert, upon this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France, but he was moſt ungenerouſly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and after ſuffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James, the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for government, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it, in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the

pre-

preceding reigns; but the execution of these designs cost him his life, being murthered in his bed by some of the chief nobility, in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirtieth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to favourites, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they rivalled the English in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII's daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the ballance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took no share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution, tho' it is generally believed that, had he lived, he would have seized all the church revenues in imitation of Henry; but he died in the thirty-first year of his age, anno 1542, of grief, for an affront which his arms had sustained in an ill-judged expedition against the English.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, and her

her misfortunes, are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her own couſin-german, the lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death has given riſe to much controverſy, and the reſult of which is highly in favour of her memory. The conſequence of her huſband's death was a rebellion, by which ſhe was driven into England, where ſhe was baſely detained a priſoner for eighteen years, and afterwards beheaded by order of queen Elizabeth in 1586-7, and the forty-ſixth year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhewing great abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, deſtroyed the independency, as it impoveriſhed the people of Scotland; for the ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for bread in other countries. James, after a ſplendid, but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. It is well known, that the deſpotic principles of that prince received the firſt check from the Scots; and that, had it not been for them, he would eaſily have ſubdued his Engliſh rebels, who implored the aſſiſtance of the Scots; but afterwards, againſt all the ties of honour and humanity, brought him to the block in 1648.

The Scots ſaw their error when it was too late; and made ſeveral bloody, but unfortunate attempts, to ſave the father, and to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter; after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the uſurper gave law to Scotland. I have, in another place, touched upon the moſt material parts of Charles's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of king William, who was ſo far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament, ſhe was brought to the brink of ruin.

The ſtate of parties in England, at the acceſſion of queen Anne, was ſuch, that the Whigs, once more, had recourſe to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would liſten to the propoſal; but at laſt, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; ſince which event, the hiſtory of Scotland becomes the ſame with that of England.

ENGLAND.

Extent and situation.

	Miles.		
Length	360	between	50 and 56 north latitude.
Breadth	300		2 east and 6-20 west longitude.

Climate and boundaries. THE longeſt day in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt, in the ſouthern, near 8 hours. It is bounded on the north, by that part of the iſland called Scotland; on the eaſt, by the German Ocean; on the weſt, by St. George's Channel; and on the ſouth, by the Engliſh Channel, which parts it from France.

This ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on the ſea coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the ſame degrees of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is admired and envied all over the world, occaſioned by the refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

Name and divisions, ancient and modern. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived, as I have already mentioned, from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the time of the Romans, the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; the antient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The weſtern tract of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the land of ſtrangers, becauſe inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were ſtrangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England (for they never did Scotland) they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom.

2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, comprehending Wales; and,
3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To theſe diviſions ſome add, the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxon invaſion took place, about the year 450, and when they were eſtabliſhed in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themſelves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the moſt inſtrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republic, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms; but in time of war, a chief was choſen out of the ſeven kings; for which reaſon I call it a political republic, its conſtitution greatly reſembling that of antient Greece.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtiled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	Counties.		Chief Towns.
1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent	—	Canterbury
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suſſex	—	Chicheſter
	Surry	—	Southwark.
3. Eaſt-Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk	—	Norwich
	Suffolk	—	BurySt.Edmonds
	Cambridge	—	Cambridge
	With the Iſle of Ely		Ely.
4. Weſt-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060.	Cornwall	—	Launceſton
	Devon	—	Exeter
	Dorſet	—	Dorcheſter
	Somerſet	—	Bath
	Wilts	—	Saliſbury
	Hants	—	Wincheſter
	Berks	—	Abingdon.
	Lancaſter	—	Lancaſter.
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida, in 574, and ended in 792.	York	—	York
	Durham	—	Durham
	Cumberland	—	Carliſle
	Weſtmoreland	—	Appleby
	Northumberland, and Scotland to the Firth of Edinburgh	—	Newcaſtle.

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
6. East-Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Essex — Middlesex, and part of Hertford	London
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	Gloucester	Gloucester
	Hereford	Hereford
	Worcester	Worcester
	Warwick	Warwick
	Leicester	Leicester
	Rutland	Oakham
	Northampton	Northampton
	Lincoln	Lincoln
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon
	Bedford	Bedford
	Buckingham	Aylesbury
	Oxford	Oxford
	Stafford	Stafford
	Derby	Derby
	Salop	Shrewsbury
	Nottingham	Nottingham
	Chester	Chester
	And the other part of Hertford	Hertford.

I have been the more sollicitous to preserve those divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which, to this day, prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman conquest, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits are;

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Essex —	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford	Hertford, St. Alban's, Royston, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishops-Stortford, Berkhamsted, Hemsted, and Barnet.
	Kent —	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Margate, Gravesend, and Milton.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit continued.	Surry —	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wansworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagshot, Egham, and Darking.
	Sussex —	Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East-Grinstead, Hastings, Horsham, Midhurst, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelsea, Battel, Brighthelmstone, and Petworth.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks —	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stony Stratford, and Newport-Pagnel.
	Bedford —	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmanchester, St. Neot's, Ramsey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royston, and Wisbich.
	Suffolk —	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Halesworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Franglingham, Stow-market, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.
	Norfolk —	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
3. Oxford Circuit.	Oxon —	Oxford, Banbury, Chippingnorton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, and Tame.
	Berks —	Abingdon, Windsor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farrington, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Glouçester	Glouçester, Tewkbury, Cirençester, part of Bristol, Campden, Stow, Berkley, Dursley, Leechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marshfield.
	Worçester	Worçester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, and Pershore.
	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Lemster, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Ross.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
3. Oxford Circuit continued.	Salop —	Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's-caſtle, Witchurch, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford —	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle under Line, Woolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone.
4. Midland Circuit.	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leiceſter	Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, Aſhby de la Zouch, Boſworth, and Harborough.
	Derby —	Derby, Cheſterfield, Workſworth, Bakewel, and Balſover.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Eaſt and Weſt Redford, Manſfield, Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln	Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Gainſborough, Louth, and Horncaſtle.
	Rutland —	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampt.	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thorpſton, Towceſter, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
5. Weſtern Circuit.	Hants —	Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumſey, Arlesford; and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the Iſle of Wight.
	Wilts —	Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminſter.
	Dorſet —	Dorcheſter, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftsbury, Pool, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerſet —	Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgwater, Ilcheſter, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glaſtenbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunſter, Watchet, Yeovil; Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croſcomb, and Froome.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
5. Western Circuit continued.	Devon —	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtaple, Bideford, Tiverton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Okehampton, Aſhburton, Credeton, Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, Axminſter, Plympton, Honiton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall —	Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſtow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leſkard, Leſtwithiel, Helſton, Penzance, and Redruth.
6. Northern Circuit.	York —	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaſter, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knareſborough, Barneſley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaſter, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirſke, Giſborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
	Durham —	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Caſtle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland.
	Northumb.	Newcaſtle, Tinmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaſter	Lancaſter, Manchester, Preſton, Liverpoole, Wiggan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormſkirk, Hawkſhead, and Newton.
	Weſtmorel.	Appleby, Kendal, Lonſdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleſide, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland	Carliſle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglaſs, Egremont, Keſwick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middleſex is not comprehended; and Cheſhire is left out of theſe circuits, becauſe, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The ſame may be ſaid of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Counties excluſive of the Circuits.	Middleſex	LONDON, firſt meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Weſtminſter, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelſea, Highgate, Hampſtead, Kenſington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Cheſter —	Cheſter, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodiſham, and Haulton.

Circuits of WALES.

North-East Circuit.	Flint —	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh —	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomery	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool.
North-West Circuit.	Angleſey	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth	Delgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.
South-East Circuit.	Radnor —	Radnor, Preſtean, and Knighton.
	Brecon —	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swanſey.
South-West Circuit.	Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordweſt, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiſcard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan	Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llanbadarn-vawr.
	Caermarth.	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanimdovery, Llandilovawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

In ENGLAND.

40	Counties, which ſend up to parliament —	80 knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London four) ——	50 citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each — — —	334 burgeſſes.
5	Boroughs, (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Highham-Ferrars, and Monmouth) one each —— ——	5 burgeſſes.
2	Univerſities —— ——	4 repreſentatives.
8	Cinque ports, (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford) two each —— ——	16 barons.

WALES.

12	Counties —— ——	12 knights.
12	Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none) one each —— ——	12 burgeſſes.

SCOTLAND.

33	Shires —— ——	30 knights.
67	Cities and Boroughs ——	15 burgeſſes.
	Total	558

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER. The ſoil of England and Wales differ in each county, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which the inhabitants of each county has made in the cultivation of land and garden, the draining of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. To enter upon particular ſpecimens and proofs of theſe improvements, would require a large volume of itſelf. All that can be ſaid therefore is in general, that if no unkindly ſeaſons happen, England produces corn not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring immenſe ſums of ready money for her exports. The benefit, however, from thoſe exports have ſometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently ſpared, and have laid the poor under diſtreſs; for which reaſon exportations have been ſometimes checked by government. No nation in the world exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to ſuch perfection, that the rareſt of foreign fruits have been cultivated there, and that with ſucceſs. If any farther proof of this ſhould be required, let it be remembered, that London, and its neighbourhood, though peopled by about 1,000,000 inhabitants, is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of roots, fruits, and kitchen-ſtuff from grounds within 12 miles diſtance.

The ſoil of England ſeems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber, and the plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the ſame time. Some have obſerved a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the vaſt fleets that England put to ſea; but as no public complaints of that kind have been heard, it may be ſuppoſed that great ſtores are ſtill in reſerve; unleſs it may be thought that our ſhip-yards are partly ſupplied from America or the Baltic.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already ſaid concerning the climate. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by weſterly winds, but they are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate conſtitutions, more diſagreeable than unſalubrious. It cannot, however, be denied, that in England the weather is ſo exceſſively capricious, and unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are obliged to fly to foreign countries, for a renovation of their health. Many, eſpecially

foreigners, have attributed that remarkable ſelf-diſſatisfaction of the Engliſh, which too often proceeds to acts of ſuicide, to their air and climate; but however theſe may operate, the evil probably lies in the people's manner of living, which is more groſs and luxurious, than that of any other nation.

After what we have obſerved in the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons, which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place, is very undetermined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May the face of the country is as often covered with hoary froſt as with bloſſoms. The beginning of June is often as cold as the middle of December, yet ſometimes the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average September, and next to it October, bid very fair to be the two moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. After ſaying thus much, it would be in vain to attempt any farther deſcription of the Engliſh ſeaſons. Their inconſtancy, however, are not attended with the effects that may be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, very ſeldom three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: and it is generally obſerved, that the inhabitants ſeldom ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the greateſt irregularity, and the moſt unfavourable appearances of the ſeaſons, is not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity. Perhaps this, in a great meaſure, may be owing to the vaſt improvements of agriculture, for when ſcarcity itſelf has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the exceſſive exportations of grain, on account of the drawback, and the profit of the returns.

In ſpeaking of water, I do not intend to include rivers, brooks, or lakes; I mean waters for the common conveniencies of life, and thoſe that have mineral qualities. The champain parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains, though a diſcerning palate may perceive, that they commonly contain ſome mineral impregnation. In many high lying parts of the country, the inhabitants are greatly diſtreſt for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the various diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and preſervation

preſervation of their health, ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Briſtol, in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton, in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epſom, Dulwich, Acton, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is uſed as commonly as any other for medicinal purpoſes, and ſo delicate are the tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one coaſt, and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS.] The induſtry of the Engliſh is, and has been ſuch as to ſupply the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates, and in many reſpects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently ſwelling, and both of them forming proſpects equal to the moſt luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of encloſures and plantations, the noble ſeats, comfortable houſes, chearful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are inexpreſſible. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure, but nothing can give us a higher idea of the Engliſh induſtry, than by obſerving that ſome of the moſt beautiful counties in the kingdom, are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful riſing grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwold in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowden in Wales. In general, however, Wales, and the northern parts, may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence; the Thames, the nobleſt perhaps in the world, riſes on the confluence of Glouceſterſhire, and after receiving the many tributary ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſt-

minſter bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London bridge; but for a more particular deſcription the reader muſt conſult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England, among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton (which is of wood) being the only two it had from the Nore, to the laſt mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The vaſt increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade, are now multiplying bridges, and ſome think the world cannot parallel for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter, and Black Friars. Putney, Kew, and Hampton-court, have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides.

The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the mouth of the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham, where the men of war are laid up. The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in north Wales; becomes navigable at Welch-Pool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury; then turning ſouth, viſits Bridgenorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction; is near its mouth increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol-channel, near King-road; and there the great ſhips, which cannot get up to Briſtol, lie. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England, are the Ouſe (which is a Gaelic word ſignifying water in general) which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth be-

low Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German ſea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to north through Weſtmoreland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and paſſing by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey, which runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are but few, though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and indeed, in ſome places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been very frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land by induſtry. The chief lakes now remaining, are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſay mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. All theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Weſtmoreland, and ſome ſmall lakes in Lancaſhire, go by the name of Derwent waters.

FORESTS.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for political purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſubjects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of ground into foreſts, for the benefit of hunting, and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves, ſo that it was neceſſary about the time of paſſing the Magna Charta, to form them into a ſort of a code, called the foreſt-laws; and juſtices in Eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe vaſt tracts were diſforeſted, and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt. Thoſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not foreſts, of cheſnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber, for

for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh, and undecayed, though ſome of them above 600 years old.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phenicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before that of the Chriſtian Æra; and ſince the Engliſh have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore called Mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded, till about 60 years ago, Sir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis caliminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws, and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners alone are ſaid to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the Engliſh lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh coined ſilver is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England, produces marble, but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of freeſtone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheſhire yields allum and ſalt pits. The Engliſh fullers earth is of ſuch infinite conſequence to the cloathing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under the ſevereſt penalties. Pit and ſea coal is found in many counties of England, but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhopric of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries, is a valuable article.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] This is ſo copious an article, and ſuch improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, ever ſince the beſt printed accounts we have had of both, that much muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation and experience. I have already touched, in treating on the ſoil, upon the corn trade of England, but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other horſe grain growing in the kingdom. Excellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture, are now common in England, and their members are ſo public ſpirited

ſpirited as to print periodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experiments, which ſerve to ſhew that both agriculture and gardening can admit to be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection, than they are in at preſent. Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to mention to the moſt uninformed reader, in what plenty the moſt excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, raſberries, and other hortulane productions, grow here, and what vaſt quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cyder, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention thoſe improvements, did we not obſerve that the natives of England have made the different fruits of all the world their own, ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot beds, and other means of forcing nature. The Engliſh pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Perſia and Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine, and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſallads, in perfection, ſuch as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbage, coleworts, brocoli, peas, beans, kidney beans, ſpinage, beets, lettuce, cellary, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks, onions and ſhallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax is in other counties. In nothing, however, have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful, than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, ſaintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which is now become a very conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to animal productions, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch, and the Welch cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes, upon the whole, are the beſt of any in the world, whether we regard their ſpirit, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken by all ranks, from the monarch down to the peaſant, for improving the breed of this favourite

favourite and noble animal, and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable, for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. It is no uncommon thing for an Engliſh horſe, mare, or gelding, though not of the race kind, to run above 20 miles within the hour, and they have been known to do it in a carriage. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry, renders them the beſt in the world in war: and an Engliſh hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chace. Thoſe which draw equipages on the ſtreets of London, are particularly beautiful, and a ſet often coſts 1000l. a ſtronger and a heavier breed is employed for other draughts. I muſt not omit that the exportation of horſes to France, and other countries, where they ſell for large prices, has of late become a conſiderable article of commerce. It is hard to ſay how far this traffic with our natural enemies is allowable, but there is certainly leſs danger attending it, as the animals are commonly gelded. The breed of aſſes and mules begin likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are of two kinds, thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. I have been credibly informed, that in ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs, and that in Lincolnſhire, particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of thoſe animals to ſell for 30l. It muſt, however, be owned, that thoſe large fat ſheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which, at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000l. It is ſuppoſed, however, that by the fall of the value of the fleeces, a fourth part of this ſum ought to be deducted at preſent. The other kind of ſheep, which are fed upon the downs, ſuch as thoſe of Banſtead, Bagſhot-heath, and Devonſhire, where they have, what the farmers call, a ſhort bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs, to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bulldogs, are the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies in the world, but either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bulldogs, upon one of his moſt terrible lions in the Tower, and they laid him on his back. The maſtiff, however, is the preferable creature, having all the courage of the bulldog, without its ferocity, and he is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of

of dogs, which abound in other countries (and are needleſs to be enumerated here) for the field, as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England.

What I have obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries, is applicable to the Engliſh game cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage and ferocity of thoſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal, are likewiſe extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are pretty much the ſame in England, as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets, and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, in the ſeaſon, growſe, quail, landrail, ſnipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, gold-finches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds, particularly canary birds, which breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea-fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake fiſh, called char, which is found in ſome freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and as ſome ſay no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkaite, ſoles. The John Dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſts. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, and ſhrimps, and eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell-fiſhes, cockles, wilks, or periwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the Engliſh ſeas. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt, but great numbers of porpuſſes and ſeals appear in the channel. After all, the Engliſh have been, perhaps, with great juſtice, accuſed of not paying proper attention to their fiſheries, which are confined to a few inconſiderable towns in the weſt of England. The beſt fiſh that comes to the tables of the great in London, are ſold by the Dutch to Engliſh boats, and that induſtrious people even take them upon the Engliſh coaſt. Great attention, it is true, has been paid

paid within these 30 years past, by the English, to this important concern. Many public spirited noblemen, and gentlemen, formed themselves into a company for carrying on a British fishery. Large sums were subscribed, and paid with unbounded generosity. Busses and other vessels were built, and the most pleasing prospects of success presented themselves to the public. They were, however, unaccountably disappointed, though it is hard to say from what cause, unless it was, that the price of English labour was too dear for bringing the commodity to the market, upon the same terms as the Dutch, whose herrings were actually surpassed in the curing by the British.

With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms, and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the rest of Europe, and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural history, than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The exemption of the English constitution, from the despotic powers exercised in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reason why it is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England, and yet it is certain that this might occasionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty. With regard to political calculations, they must be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, who settle in the nation, the evacuations of inhabitants to America, their return from thence, the vast numbers of hands employed in shipping, and the late demand of men for the East Indies, and for settling our new conquests, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous, than the estimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The late war, which broke out with France and Spain, annually employed above 200,000 Englishmen, exclusive of Scotch and Irish, by sea and land, and in its progress carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed sensibly felt, but not in comparison to what it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the sea and land service. Great-Britain indeed was obliged to furnish large contingents of men to the confederate army, yet not above half of them were her own subjects. I mention those conjectures, partly on the strength of the public accounts, and partly from undisputed facts, which some now alive may remember, as the nobility, and even ministers of state, often had their servants pressed from behind

behind their coaches, to ſupply the ſea and land-ſervice, an expedient to which we were not reduced in the late war.

At the ſame time I am not of opinion, that England is at preſent naturally more populous, than it was in the reign of Charles I. though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh, of former ages, were ſtrangers to the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes of living, that are deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, undoubtedly muſt have been favourable to mankind, though upon an average, perhaps, a married couple has not ſuch a numerous progeny now, as formerly. I will take the liberty to make another obſervation, which falls within the cognizance of almoſt every man, and that is the incredible encreaſe of foreign names upon our pariſh books, and public liſts, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be preſumptuous to pretend to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales, but in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than ſeven millions, and that they are daily encreaſing. The fallibility of political calculations, appears in a very ſtriking light in thoſe of the population of London, becauſe it is impoſſible to fix it upon any of the known rules or proportions of births and burials. Calculators have been not only miſtaken in applying thoſe rules to London, and, as they are called, the bills of mortality, but even in topical matters, becauſe about 100,000 inhabitants, at the very gates of London, do not lie within the bills of mortality.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well-ſized, regularly featured, commonly fair, rather than otherwiſe, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be preſumed, that the vaſt numbers of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions, different from thoſe of their anceſtors, 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhapes, features, and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty; and it has been alſo obſerved, that the women of Lancaſhire and ſome other counties, diſplay a manifeſt ſuperiority in theſe reſpects. But beſides the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children. Of all people in the world the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally affected by imagination, inſomuch, that before the

practice of inoculation for the small-pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathsome disease, by its true name, in any polite company.

This over sensibility is one of the sources of those oddities, which so strongly characterize the English nation. An apprehension of dying a beggar, often kills them in the midst of plenty and prosperity. They magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution, or constancy of mind. A groundless paragraph, in a news-paper, has been known to affect the stocks, and consequently public credit, to a considerable degree, and their credulity goes so far, that England may be termed the paradise of quacks and empirics, in all arts and professions. In short, the English feel, as if it really existed, every evil in mind, body, and estate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals, they are sensible of this absurdity, and run into a contrary extremity, striving to banish it by dissipation, riot, intemperance, and diversions. They are fond, for the same reason, of clubs, and convivial associations, and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cures for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The same observations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which must be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change since the accession of the House of Hanover, especially of late years. The English nobility and gentry, of great fortunes, now assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourse than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they visit, under the tuition, perhaps, of a despicable pedant, or family dependant. They travel for the purposes of society, and at the more advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This has enlarged society in England, which foreigners now visit as commonly as Englishmen visited them, and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Such of the English noblemen and gentlemen, as do not strike into those high walks of life, affect rather what we call a snug, than a splendid way of living. They study and understand better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates, and they spare no cost to purchase it. It has, however, been observed, that this

this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be, but, on the other hand, the few connections they form, are ſincere, chearful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often diſcernible among tradeſmen. This love of ſnugneſs and conveniency, may be called the ruling paſſion of the Engliſh people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours and fatigues, which are incredible. A good œconomiſt, with a briſk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from buſineſs, that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or to ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, buys a good gelding, wears a laced hat, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; his ſtile of living, however, being always judiciouſly ſuited to his circumſtances.

Few people in the world know better than tradeſmen, and men of buſineſs, in England, how to pay their court to their cuſtomers, and employers, nay even by bribes, and ſometimes becoming tributary to their ſervants. Thoſe arts they conſider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too commonly leads them into a contrary extreme, even that of thinking themſelves under no obligation from the rules of decency, duty and ſubordination. This carries them to that petulance, which is ſo offenſive to ſtrangers, and though encouraged through the want of education, has its root in the nobleſt of principles, badly underſtood, I mean that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property. The ſame laws, at the ſame time, take no cognizance of the abuſe of liberty, if not carried into an actual breach of the peace, ſo that every Engliſhman has a copious range for unpuniſhed ill-manners, and unprovoked inſolence. This licentiouſneſs, or abuſe of freedom, is carried in England to an aſtoniſhing height, and ſeems to be epidemical. It is the only public evil, that inſtead of loſing, gathers ſtrength, and what is to be lamented, its violence is always in proportion to the mildneſs of the government, and its cautious execution of the laws, ſo that it may be properly conſidered as a mode of that riotous diſſipation I have already mentioned.

The over ſenſibility of the Engliſh, is diſcovered in nothing more than in the vaſt ſubſcriptions for public charities, raiſed by all degrees of both ſexes. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow creature ſuffers, and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with a liberality that ſometime or other may prove injurious to induſtry, becauſe it takes from the lower ranks the uſual motives of labour, that they

may ſave ſomewhat for themſelves and families, againſt the days of pain or ſickneſs. The very people who contribute to thoſe collections, are aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for a maintenance, inſomuch that there can be no beggar in England but through choice or indolence; and upwards of three millions ſterling is ſaid to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purpoſes. The inſtitutions however of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The vaſt ſums beſtowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, very often begets heats and cabals, which are very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and too often even to party conſiderations.

Notwithſtanding thoſe noble proviſions which would baniſh poverty from any other country, the ſtreets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of diſtreſs, who beg in defiance of the laws which render the practice ſeverely puniſhable. This is owing to the manner in which the common people live, who conſider the food to be uneatable which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The Engliſh, though iraſcible, are the moſt placable people in the world, and will often ſacrifice part of their intereſt rather than proceed to extremity. They are eaſily prevailed upon to forgive by ſubmiſſion, and they carry this lenity too far, by accepting of profeſſions of ſorrow publiſhed in advertiſements by thoſe who offend them, and who ſeldom are ſincere; nay, often laugh at the eaſineſs of their proſecutors, for diſmiſſing them ſo gently. The unſuſpecting nature of the Engliſh, and their honeſt open manners, eſpecially of thoſe in the mercantile way, render them dupes in ſeveral reſpects. They attend to projectors, and no ſcheme is ſo ridiculous that will not find abettors in England. They liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to the relief of the parties even by replacing them, often in a more creditable condition than ever. The loweſt bred of the Engliſh, are capable of thoſe and the like generous actions, but they often make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is among the Engliſh of all ranks, a moſt unpardonable preference given to wealth, over all other conſiderations. Riches, both in public and private, compenſate for the abſence of every good quality. This offenſive failing ariſes partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which makes the poſſeſſion

ſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours, and diſtinctions.

The ſame attention to property operates in many other ſhapes among the lower claſſes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and diſregardful of all about them, nor are the higher orders exempt from the ſame failing. The ſame principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the firſt rank have been often ſeen laying bets with butchers and cobblers at horſe-races and boxing-matches. Gentlemen and merchants of vaſt property are not to be diſtinguiſhed either by their dreſs or converſation from the meaneſt of their ſervants, and a wager offered to be ſtaked in ready money againſt a penyleſs antagoniſt, is generally a deciſive argument in public company.

An Engliſhman of thorough education and reading, is the moſt accompliſhed gentleman in the world, and underſtands arts and ſciences the beſt. He is however ſhy and retentive in his communications even to diſguſt, and a man may be in company with him for months without diſcovering that he knows any thing beyond the verge of a farm yard, or above the capacity of a horſe jockey. This unamiable coldneſs is ſo far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Living learning and genius meets with very little regard, even from the firſt rate of Engliſhmen: and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the ſtate diſtinction of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities, but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the very few who met with preferment in the ſtate, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarce have an inſtance even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius being, as ſuch, made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300 l. a year of the public money to aſſiſt him in his travels, and Mr. Pope though a Roman catholic was offered, but did not accept of, the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the whig ſecretary of ſtate, when it was remarked that his tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papiſt. This reproach upon governmental munificence is now wearing off under the patronage of his majeſty and his miniſters.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon diſguſt, and all in the ſame perſon. In their convivial meetings they are generally noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the Engliſh nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the Engliſh ſoldiers an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon the muſquet. The Engliſh courage has likewiſe the property, under able commanders, of being equally paſſive as active. Their ſoldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a moſt dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts, they excell all nations in the world. The intenſe application which an Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and, as it were, abſorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſences that are to be found in the nation.

All I have ſaid concerning the Engliſh, is to be underſtood of them in general as they are at preſent, for it is not to be diſſembled that every day produces ſtrong indications of great alterations in their manners. The vaſt fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by peace, and above all the amazing encreaſe of territorial as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, have introduced a ſpecies of people among the Engliſh, who have become rich without induſtry, and by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver have created a new ſyſtem of finances in the nation. Time alone can ſhew the event: Hitherto the conſequences ſeem to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a ſpirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal, or ſurpaſs the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of buſineſs which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance in dreſs and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſements and diverſions, not only in the capital but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even

Even the cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this century, undergone an almoſt total alteration. Their antient hoſpitality ſubſiſts but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occaſions. Many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned ſtag and fox hunting and horſe-races, of which the Engliſh of all denominations are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for thoſe diverſions: The intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet require exerciſe, and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is encreaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. The Engliſh are remarkably cool, both in loſing and winning at play, but the former is often attended with acts of ſuicide. An Engliſhman will rather murder himſelf than bring a ſharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign puniſhment, even though warranted by law. Next to horſe-racing, and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion, among the great, as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both aſſemble round the pit, at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the generous animal, every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in the ſouthern and weſtern parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. It is performed by a perſon who with a clumſy wooden bat, defends a wicket raiſed of two ſlender ſticks, with one acroſs, which is attacked by another perſon, who endeavours to beat it down, with a hard leather ball, from a certain ſtand. The farther the diſtance is to which the ball is driven, the oftener the defender is able to run between the wicket and the ſtand. This is called gaining ſo many notches, and he who gets the moſt is the victor. Many other paſtimes are common in England, ſome of them of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-hunting, foot, and aſs-races, dancing, puppet-ſhews, May garlands, and above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic, which the Engliſh boaſt they have brought into an art. The barbarous diverſions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England, and equally inhuman, as the ſhews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, and all places of public diverſions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diverſions, which are common to other countries, ſuch

as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds, and thoſe highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged, by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The Engliſh are exceſſively fond of ſkaiting, in which, however, they are not very expert, but they are adventurous in it often to the danger and loſs of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich, for the farmers, and the country people deſtroy the game in their nets, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Engliſh, has been conſidered in various lights.

DRESS.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear on high occaſions, in cloth of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſattins, ſilks, and velvets, both flowered and plain, and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all thoſe are diſcouraged. Some of thoſe rich ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England, as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth, and the beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver-hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tie perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen, and men of buſineſs, that is, to wear a plain ſuit of ſuperfine cloth, excellent linen and wigs, that ſuit their complections, and the form of their faces. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field, on which occaſions they dreſs with remarkable propriety, in a light frock, narrow brimmed hat, a ſhort bob wig, jockey boots, and buckſkin, or ſhag breeches. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their

their apparel; but since the accession of his present majesty, the dresses at court, on solemn occasions, are superb beyond description. Few even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10 l. in cloathing, comprehending hat, wig, stockings, shoes and linen, and even many beggars in the street appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of a man in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his industry and morals.

RELIGION.] Eusebius and other antient writers, positively assert, that Christianity was first preached in South Britain by the apostles and their disciples. It is unnecessary to repeat what has been said in the Introduction respecting the rise and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I shall only observe in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted those doctrines which had passed for certain during so many ages; and that the established religion in England, which had its rise under Henry VIII. is reformed from the errors of popery, and approaches nearer to the primitive christianity, being equally removed from superstition and indelicacy in its worship, and as void of bigotry, as of licentiousness, in its practice. The constitution of the church is episcopal, and is governed by bishops, whose benefices were converted, by the Norman conqueror, into temporal baronies, in right of which, every bishop has a seat and vote in the house of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy, are now freehold, but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The œconomy of the church of England, has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them, especially in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this, perhaps, is unavoidable, and very probably never can be entirely remedied, though the crown, as well as private persons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, such as deans, prebends, and the like, have generally large incomes; some of them exceeding in value those of bishoprics, for which reason the revenues of a rich deanery, or other living, is often annexed to a poor bishopric. At present, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a most flourishing situation, because the value of their tithes encreases with the improvements of lands, which of late has been amazing in England. The sovereigns of England, ever since the reign of

Henry VIII. have been called in public writs, the ſupreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no ſpiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any eccleſiaſtical differences, or in other words, to ſubſtitute the king in place of the pope, before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in eccleſiaſtical diſputes, and are contented to give a ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this deſcription, of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers*. The two archbiſhops, are thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are both dignified with the addreſs of 'your grace.' The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to hold eccleſiaſtical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cognizable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting, in certain caſes, licenſes and diſpenſations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter,

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* To the following liſt, I have ſubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's books; for though that ſum is far from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it aſſiſts in forming a comparative eſtimate between the revenues of each ſee with thoſe of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICS,

Canterbury, —	£2682	:	12	:	2	York, — —	£1610	:	0	:	0

BISHOPRICS,

London, — —	1000	:	0	:	0	Chicheſter, — —	677	:	1	:	3
Durham, —	1821	:	1	:	3	St. Aſaph, —	187	:	11	:	8
Winchester —	2873	:	18	:	1	Saliſbury, — —	1385	:	5	:	9
Theſe three biſhoprics take precedency of all others in England, and the others according to the ſeniority of their conſecrations.						Bangor, — —	131	:	16	:	3
						Norwich, — —	834	:	11	:	7
						Glouceſter, — —	315	:	7	:	3
						Landaff, — —	154	:	14	:	2
Ely, — —	2134	:	18	:	6	Lincoln, — —	894	:	18	:	1
Bath and Wells,	533	:	1	:	3	Briſtol, — —	294	:	11	:	0
Hereford, —	768	:	11	:	0	Carliſle, — —	531	:	4	:	9
Rocheſter, —	358	:	4	:	0	Exeter, — —	500	:	0	:	0
Litchfield & Coventry	559	:	17	:	3	Peterborough, —	414	:	17	:	8
Cheſter, — —	420	:	1	:	8	Oxford, — —	381	:	11	:	0
Worceſter, — —	929	:	13	:	3	St. David's, — —	426	:	2	:	1

Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws of England, ſuch extenſive powers, that ever ſince the death of archbiſhop Laud (whoſe character will be hereafter given) the government of England has thought proper to raiſe to that dignity, none but men of very moderate principles, and of very inoffenſive abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and conſequently of the ſtate.

The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes, not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beſides his own dioceſe, the biſhoprics of Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed Your lordſhips, ſtiled Right reverend fathers in God, and precede as barons on all public occaſions. They have all the privileges of peers, and the biſhoprics of London, Wincheſter, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblemen. Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying-places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant adminiſtration of goods of ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit their own dioceſes once in three years.

Deans and prebends of cathedrals, have been already mentioned, but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion for clergymen of eminence and merit. England contains about ſixty archdeacons, whoſe office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year, but their offices are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly ſtiled arch preſbyters, who ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts and deacons.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is, properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, and anſwers pretty near to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament, and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate

of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Ann, and in the beginning of that of George I. raiſed the powers of the convocation to a height that was inconſiſtent with the principles of religious tolerancy, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of diſſolving them, and ever ſince they have not been permitted to ſit for any time, in which they could do buſineſs.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates, who plead in this court, muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtrations taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhop's courts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than fifteen of theſe peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own, called the conſiſtory court. Every archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is, beyond any other church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and it excludes no ſect of Chriſtians from the exerciſe of their reſpective religious worſhip. Without entering upon the motives of its reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain, that epiſcopal government, excepting under the time of uſurpation, has ever ſince prevailed in England. The wiſdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conſpicuous in diſcouraging all religious perſecution and intolerancy, and if religious ſectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the ſame principle that civil lincentiouſneſs has prevailed; I mean a tenderneſs in matters that can affect either conſcience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery, in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon, and even ſo late as that of Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power, for a farther reformation. Thence aroſe the puritans, ſo called from their affecting a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and ſome of them good patriots.

patriots. Their deſcendants are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty, only with ſome differences as to church diſcipline, and the modes of worſhip. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, inſtituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. The preſbyterians, however, are now conſidered as being diſſenters. The baptiſts form another ſect of diſſenters. Theſe do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptiſm, and in the baptiſm of adults, they practiſe immerſion into water. Blended with theſe are the independents, but it is hard to ſay what are the particular tenets of thoſe ſects, ſo much have they deviated from their original principles, and ſo greatly do their profeſſors differ from each other. The moderate clergy of the church of England, treat the preſbyterians with affection and friendſhip; and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not being very material to ſalvation, nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Some of them have of late contended in writings, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to reformation.

The methodiſts are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitefield, a divine of the church of England, but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. All we know is, that they pretend to great fervour and devotion, that their founder, who died lately, thought that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, and he accordingly made uſe of both forms. His followers are rigid obſervers of the thirty-nine articles, and many of them profeſs themſelves to be calviniſts. But even this ſect is ſplit among themſelves, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitefield, and others Mr. Weſley, for their leader; not to mention a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland) who have their ſeparate followers, both at London, and in the country of England. I am to obſerve, that there ſeems at preſent to be among thoſe ſectaries, and diſſenters, a vaſt relaxation of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, which is chiefly owing to diſunion among themſelves, and in ſome meaſure to the principle

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of free-thinking, the profeſſors of which are preſbyterians or independents, and conſider all ſyſtems of religious government, and teſts of faith, as ſo many fetters upon reaſon and conſcience.

The quakers form a numerous ſect of diſſenters in England, and perhaps if their profeſt principles were to undergo a very ſtrict examination, they would appear to be founded in free-thinking, though they pretend to be guided by internal revelation, dictated by the ſpirit of God. That revelation, and that ſpirit, however, are juſt what they pleaſe to make them, and if they mean any thing, it is an abſtraction from all ſenſual ideas, in treating of the Chriſtian religion, and its myſteries, for they attempt to allegorize all the facts in the goſpel. They diſclaim all religious creeds made uſe of by other Chriſtians, and all the modes of worſhip practiſed in other churches. They diſregard the authority of the clergy, and refuſe to pay tithes unleſs they are compelled by law. They neither uſe baptiſm, nor partake of the Lord's Supper. They affect a peculiar plainneſs of dreſs, both as to the form and the colours of their cloaths, and they publickly declaim againſt reſiſtance, and the legality of going to war on any account. With regard to the reſurrection of the body, and the doctrines of rewards and puniſhments hereafter, and many other capital points of Chriſtianity, they have not yet explained themſelves authentically.

Were all the other peculiarities of this ſect to be deſcribed, a reader, not acquainted with it, would be apt to think it impoſſible, that it ſhould aſſociate with other Chriſtians. Nothing however is more certain, than that the quakers are moſt excellent members of the community. The ſtrictneſs of their morality makes amends for the oddities of their principles, and the ſimplicity of their living, for the wildneſs of their opinions. Their œconomy is admirable, for though none of them pretend to any coercive power, yet their cenſures are ſubmitted to as implicitly, as if they were Romiſh bigots under an inquiſition. The higheſt puniſhment is a kind of excommunication, which I ſhall not pretend to deſcribe, but which is taken off upon repentance and amendment, and the party is readmitted into all the privileges of their body. Their government is truly republican, and admirably well adapted to their principles. They have an annual meeting, which is generally held at London, in the month of May, and this is reſorted to by deputies from all parts of Great-Britain, Ireland, Holland, Germany, and the Britiſh plantations. In this meeting is examined the proceedings of their other meetings, which are monthly and quarterly. Indecencies of every kind are cenſured,

ſured, contributions are received, accounts are examined, and diſcourſes, exhortations, and ſermons are delivered ſuitable to the exigency of the times, and their prevailing vices and immoralities. The good ſenſe for which this ſect is remarkable, renders their leaders more reſpectable, than thoſe which royalty or power appoint over other communities. This, with the mildneſs of their behaviour, ſobriety, and great induſtry, have raiſed them high in the eſteem of the legiſlature, which has even indulged them by admitting of their affirmation, inſtead of an oath in the courts of juſtice.

I ſhall not here enter into their political hiſtory, or in what manner one of their number, William Penn, formed that admirable eſtabliſhment of their order, which ſtill ſubſiſts in Penſylvania. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that it was found by experience, during the two laſt wars with France, that their principles were incompatible, with either civil or military government; and conſequently, that, unleſs their enemies had been quakers likewiſe, they muſt have been maſters of their country. This created great trouble with the mother country, and it unfortunately happened, that the quakers were as tenacious of their property, as of their principles. Neceſſity and danger, however, at laſt compelled them to contribute for their own defence, by their pu ſes, though we do not find that they did it in their perſons; from all which it appears that it would be impracticable to form quakers into a civil government of any kind.

The ignorance of Fox, and the firſt leaders of this ſect, led the quakers into a thouſand extravagancies, by agitations and convulſions of the body, which they termed the workings of the ſpirit. Barclay, Keith, and ſome other metaphyſical heads, defended the doctrine, though they dropt the ſingularities of the profeſſion. This ſoftened the ridicule of the public, and Barclay's ſucceſſors have omitted in their behaviour and appearance many of thoſe unmeaning ſingularities. The quakers, it is true, in general, ſtill retain the appellation of Friend, inſtead of Sir, and make uſe of Thou and Thee in diſcourſe; neither are they very ready to pull off their hats, by way of civility or reſpect. They know, however, how to accommodate themſelves to the common uſages of life, upon particular emergencies, and the ſingularities of a quaker of addreſs are now but juſt diſcernible, and can give no offence to politeneſs, unleſs they are affected.

It is impoſſible to ſay any thing with certainty concerning the number of quakers in England. In the beginning of the late reign they were eſtimated at 50,000; and I am apt to believe,

lieve, they are encreaſed, though that encreaſe is not perceptible, by their laying aſide moſt of their ſingularities. The regularity of their meetings is ſurprizing, and the admonitions which they give to their brethren, by circular letters, from their yearly meetings, are worthy imitation by the moſt civilized government. The payment of tithes is a kind of a ſtanding grievance, becauſe it is renewed every year. They are however ſteady in their oppoſition to it. They who pay them voluntarily, are always cenſured. The books relating to their religion, which they print, muſt be licenſed by a committee before they are diſperſed.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Though the penal laws againſt papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſevere, yet they are executed with ſo much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are found out for their double taxes, upon their landed property, and, as they are ſubject to none of the expences and troubles (unleſs voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the Engliſh Roman catholics are in general in good circumſtances, as to their private fortunes. The truth is, they know that a change of government, inſtead of bettering, would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would encreaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature, which would undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens, and heavier penalties. This ſenſible conſideration has of late rendered the Roman catholics as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has, and their intereſt in election of members of parliament, which is conſiderable, has for theſe 30 years paſt, commonly gone for the court. Scarcely any Engliſh Roman catholic, excepting thoſe who were bred, or had ſerved abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745, and though thoſe at home were moſt carefully obſerved, few or none of them were found guilty of diſloyal practices.

I ſhould here take my leave of the ſtate of religion in England, were it not neceſſary to mention thoſe who profeſs no religion at all, and yet have a vaſt influence upon the circumſtances and ſtate of the eſtabliſhed church. Theſe go under the name of Free-thinkers, and they are divided into as many ſects as Chriſtianity itſelf. Arians and Socinians, words well known to imply a diſbelief of the doctrines of the church of England, with regard to the Trinity, ſhelter themſelves under the name of Free-thinkers. The Deiſt ſhakes himſelf looſe of all religious inſtitutions, by pleading Free-thinking. The Fataliſt, who is a branch of deiſm, and in fact ſignifies the ſame

as

as a deiſt, does the like, and what is ſtill worſe, free-living is often the conſequence of free-thinking, as is ſeen in the unbounded diſſipation, debauchery and impiety of its profeſſors. What the effects of this irreligion may prove, is hard to ſay, but it ſeems not to be ſo general at preſent as in any one reign ſince the revolution. This is in a great meaſure owing to the diſcouragement it meets with from the royal example, which has brought an attendance upon religious ordinances into credit, at the court and capital. Another circumſtance, in favour of religion, is the noble proviſion, which the enjoyment of a biſhopric, or a dignified ſtation in the church makes, for the younger ſons of noble families. The bench of biſhops has, at no time ſince the reformation, been poſſeſſed by ſo many men of birth and quality; nor has it ever been known that ſo many young perſons of rank and family, have been educated to the church, as at preſent.

LANGUAGE.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates, and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly, would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader, but relatively it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects of other European languages. It is more energic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French, or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is ſubject, however, to great provincialities in its accent, for the people of one county can ſcarcely underſtand thoſe of another; but this happens in other countries. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, commonly either ſpeak, or underſtand the French, and many of them, the Italian and Spaniſh; but it has been obſerved, that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding the few Engliſh who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is diſuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred cultivated both in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe, nor has there ſince his time been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The Engliſh inſtitutions, for the benefit of ſtudy, partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the eaſe, the diſencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its profeſſors; witneſs the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, inſtitutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were reſpected even amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, who was himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who made a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons, who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the Confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars as the Muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable, if I ſhould omit the mention of that prodigy of learning, and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon, lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious works aſcribed to him by Leland, we find treatiſes upon the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, upon metallurgy, upon aſtronomy, coſmography, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford in 1248. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preſerved the memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes, and to his work I muſt refer. Since the Reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature *, and it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge that both his example and encouragement, laid the foundation of the polite arts, and the revival of claſſical learning in England. As many of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters, at the time of the reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners, to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, did a great deal for the encouragement of theſe foreigners, and ſhewed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning, had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England, during the bloody bigotted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth, her ſiſter, was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities, to high ranks, both in church and ſtate, but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments to have been only ſecondary to their civil.

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* See the Biographia Britannica.

In this ſhe ſhewed herſelf a great politician, but ſhe would have been a more amiable queen, had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity; for though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spencer's Muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon, by an unfeeling miniſter, that the poet languiſhed to death in obſcurity. Though ſhe taſted the beauties of the divine Shakeſpear, yet we know not that they were diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence, but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England, continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author, but his example had a wonderful effect upon his ſubjects, for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgot, that the ſecond Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden, and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are to this day ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under great obligations to James I.

His ſon Charles I. had a taſte for the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts, ſo that had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital, into a ſecond Athens, and the collections he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000l. ſterling, upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities. The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immenſe acquiſitions he made of antiquities, eſpecially his famous marble inſcriptions, may ſtand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greateſt of the Medicean princes. Charles, and his court, had little or no reliſh for poetry. But ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Johnſon, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning, and the arts, ſuffered indeed an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding uſurpation. Many very learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they followed their ſtudies, to the vaſt benefit of every branch of learning, and many works of vaſt literary merit, appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmoleſted by that uſurper, and he would even have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the royal ſociety. The king himſelf was an excellent judge of thoſe ſtudies, and though irreligious himſelf, England never abounded more with learned and able divines, than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but ſo little read, that the impreſſion did not pay the expence of 15 l. given by the bookſeller for the copy. The reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his court in ſeveral of the polite arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hook, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtile, and truer energy, than it ever had known before. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces, and though England could not under him boaſt of a Jones, and a Vandyke, yet Sir Chriſtopher Wren introdu ed a more general regularity, than ever had been known before in architecture, and many excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature, by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for ſtrength of reaſoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. a prince, who neither underſtood, nor loved learning, or genius in any ſhape. It flouriſhed, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the ſoil, in which it

had been planted. It has been obſerved, that metaphyſical reaſoning, and a ſqueamiſh ſcepticiſm in religious matters, prevailed too much, and this has been generally attributed to his indifference as to ſacred ſubjects. Argumentation, however, thereby acquired, and has ſtill preſerved a far more rational tone in every province of literature, than it had before, eſpecially in religion and philoſophy.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which put her court at leaſt on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men, who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verſe and proſe, need but be mentioned to be admired, and the Engliſh were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. I have already obſerved, that in this reign a poet held the pen of firſt ſecretary of ſtate, though Mr. Addiſon's talents were very inadequate to the poſt, and his temper ſtill more.

Though George II. was himſelf no Mecænas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign, a full proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as being firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature, was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began then to taſte the royal bounty.

The reign of his grandſon promiſes to renew a golden age to learning and all the arts. The noble inſtitution of a royal academy, and his majeſty's generous munificence to men of merit, in every ſtudy, have already thrown an illuſtrious re-

fulgence round his court, which muſt endear his memory to future generations.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in general, the Engliſh excel, in what we call, the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which, occurs in the appointments for the laſt 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontroulable judicial ſeat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few inſtances that may be alledged to the contrary, fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was cenſured indeed for corrupt practices, but malevolence itſelf does not ſay that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his ſervants. The caſe of one of his ſucceſſors is ſtill more favourable to his memory, as his cenſure reflects diſgrace only upon his enemies, and his lordſhip was, in the eyes of every man of candour and conſcience, acquitted, not only of actual but intentional guilt. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accuſed of partiality in the cauſes that came before him as chancellor.

It muſt be acknowledged, that neither pulpit, nor bar-eloquence, has been much ſtudied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The ſermons of their divines are often learned, and always ſound as to the practical and doctrinal part, but the many religious ſects in England, require to be oppoſed rather by reaſoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among the clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes were weakened by thoſe powers of language, with which they are adorned. A ſhort time, perhaps, may remove this prepoſſeſſion, and convince the clergy, as well as laity, that true eloquence is the firſt and faireſt hand-maid of argumentation. The reader, however, is not to imagine that I am inſinuating, that the preachers of the Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elocution, ſo far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them, in the purity and perſpicuity of language, though I think that if they conſulted more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect. If the ſemblance of thoſe powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthuſiaſts, are attended with the amazing effects we daily ſee, what muſt not be the conſequence, if they

they were exerted in reality, and supported with spirit and learning.

The laws of England are of so peculiar a cast, that the several pleadings at the bar, do not admit, or but very sparingly, of the flowers of speech, and I am apt to think that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner, would make a ridiculous appearance in Westminster-hall. The English lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well versed in rhetoric and reasoning.

Parliamentary speaking not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence, as the English senate in its two houses, witness the fine speeches made by both parties, in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried into great perfection by the English, and every member of the medical profession, is sure of an impartial hearing at the bar of the public. The same may be said of music, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechanism, are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any public encouragement, but that given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose. In ship-building, clock work, and the various branches of cutlery, they stand unrivalled.

Universities.] I have already mentioned the two universities of Cambridge and Oxford, which have been the seminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and some have ventured to say, than all other literary institutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which of late years, in splendour and architecture, rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to the British parliament, and their chancellors and officers have ever a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities. In Oxford there are 20, besides five halls, that are not endowed, and where the students maintain themselves. The colleges of Oxford are University, founded as some say by Alfred the Great. Baliol, founded by John Baliol, king of Scots, in 1262. Merton, founded by Walter of

Merton, bishop of Rochester, and high chancellor of England, in 1267. Exeter, founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter, and lord treasurer of England. Oriel, founded by Edward II. in the year 1324. Queen's, founded by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to queen Philippa, consort to Edward III. in her honour. New college, founded in 1386, by William of Wickham, bishop of Winchester, but finished by Thomas de Rotheram, archbishop of York, and lord high chancellor, in the year 1475. All Souls, founded by Henry Chicheley, archbishop of Canterbury, in 1437. Magdalen, was founded by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, bishop of Winchester, and lord chancellor, in the year 1458. Brazen Nose, founded in 1509, by William Smith, bishop of Lincoln. Corpus Christi, founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester. Christ Church, founded by cardinal Wolsey, in 1515, but compleated by others, and is now the cathedral of the diocese. Trinity, founded by Sir Thomas Pope, soon after the reformation. St. John Baptist was founded in 1555, by Sir Thomas White, lord mayor of London. Jesus, was begun by Hugh Price, prebendary of Rochester, and appropriated to the Welch. Wadham, so called from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of Somersetshire, Esq. It was begun by him in the year 1609, but finished after his death, by his lady, in 1613. Pembroke, so called in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord high chancellor, was founded by Thomas Tesdale, Esq; Richard Wrightwick, B. D. in 1624. Worcester, was erected into a college, by Sir Thomas Cooke of Astley, in Worcestershire.

To these 19 may be added Hertford college, formerly Hart-Hall; but a patent having passed the great seal in the year 1740, for erecting it into a college, that design is now carrying into execution.

The five halls are these following; Alban hall, Edmund hall, St. Mary's hall, New-inn hall, and St. Mary Magdalen hall.

The colleges of Cambridge are Peter-house, founded by Hugh Balsham, prior of Ely, in 1257, who was afterwards bishop of that see. Clare hall, founded in 1340, by a benefaction of lady Elizabeth Clare, countess of Alstor. Pembroke hall, founded seven years after, by a countess of Pembroke. St. Bennet's, or Corpus Christi, founded about the same time, by the united guilds, or fraternities of Corpus Christi, and the Blessed Virgin. Trinity hall, founded by Bateman, bishop of Norwich, about the year 1548. Gonvil and Caius, founded by Edmund de Gonvil in 1348, completed by bishop Bateman, and additionally endowed 200 years after, by

by John Caius, a phyſician. King's college, founded by Henry VI. and completed by his ſucceſſors. Queen's college, was founded by the ſame king's conſort, but finiſhed by Elizabeth, wife to Edward IV. Catharine hall, founded by Richard Woodlark in 1475. Jeſus college, founded by John Alcock, biſhop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII. Chriſt college was founded about the ſame time, by that king's mother, Margaret, counteſs of Richmond. St. John's college was founded by the ſame lady. Magdalen college was founded by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, in the reign of Henry VIII. Trinity college was founded by Henry VIII. Emanuel college, by Sir Walter Mildmay, in 1584. Sidney college was founded by Thomas Ratcliff, earl of Suſſex, in 1588, and had its name from his wife Frances Sidney.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. This head is ſo very extenſive, that I can only touch upon objects that can aſſiſt in giving the reader ſome idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

* London, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire, naturally takes the lead in this diviſion*; it appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæſar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and ſoon after became the capital of the iſland. It was firſt walled about with hewn ſtones, and Britiſh bricks, by Conſtantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles, with ſeven principal gates. The ſame emperor made it a biſhop's ſee; for it appears that the biſhop of London was at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he alſo ſettled a mint in it, as is plain from ſome of his coins.

London, in its large ſenſe, including Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of a very ſurprizing extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the moſt extenſive trade. This city, when conſidered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the countries in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which every part ſend their commodities, from whence

* London is ſituated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and 270 ſouth-eaſt of Dublin; 180 miles weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, 600 north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stockholm, 800 north-eaſt of Madrid, 820 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, and 1414 ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

they again are ſent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages, by land and water, are conſtantly employed; and from hence ariſes that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a proſperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head, and the moſt diſtant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witneſs their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the ſhops of tradeſmen make ſuch a noble and elegant appearance, or are better ſtocked.

It is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, a river, which, though not the largeſt, is the richeſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, ſailing to or from the moſt diſtant climates; and its banks being from London-bridge to Blackwall, almoſt one continued great magazine of naval ſtores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ſhips, for the uſe of the merchants, beſide the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards lower down the river for the building men of war. As this city is about 60 miles diſtant from the ſea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurprized by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt vapours of the ſea. It riſes regularly from the water-ſide, and extending itſelf on both ſides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of the freſh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of buſineſs. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the property of the ſubject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extenſion.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt, is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth, in ſome places, three, in other two; and in other again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almoſt 18 miles. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the large extent of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Beſide St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, there are 102 pariſh churches, and 69 cha-

69 chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 33 baptiſt meetings; 26 independent meetings; 28 preſbyterian meetings; 19 popiſh chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and 3 Jews ſynagogues. So that there are 326 places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-pariſhes, uſually included within the bills of mortality.

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes, about 20 hoſpitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public priſons, 15 fleſh-markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public ſquares, beſide thoſe within any ſingle buildings, as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchools; and 131 charity-ſchools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes, 5975 alehouſes; 800 hackney coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 130,000 dwelling-houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſume annually the following articles of proviſions.

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Poultry, and wild fowl innumerable	
Mackarel ſold at Billingſgate	14,740,000
Oyſters, buſhels	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above thoſe brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	16,000,000
Cheeſe, ditto, about	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of ſtrong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of ſmall beer	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other diſtilled waters, above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

London

London bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in courſe of time gave riſe to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly ſince the year 1756, when the houſes were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The paſſage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each ſide for foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and has at preſent 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each, but the centre one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter-bridge is reckoned one of the moſt compleat and elegant ſtructures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each ſide is a fine balluſtrade of ſtone, with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each ſide a fine foot way for paſſengers. It conſiſts of 14 piers, and 13 large, and two ſmall arches, all ſemi-circular, that in the center being 76 feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the 13 great ones, are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000 l. in ſtone, and other materials is always under water. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed in 1750, at the expence of 389,000 l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars-bridge falls nothing ſhort of that of Weſtminſter, either in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores, obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many unqueſtionable judges, preſer it to Weſtminſter-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expence of 120,000 l. to be diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular Proteſtant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the croſs, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in ſome reſpects it is ſuperior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Chriſtopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the ſame magnitude, that ever was compleated by one man. He lived to a great age, and finiſhed the building 37 years

years after he himſelf laid the firſt ſtone. It takes up ſix acres of ground, though the whole length of this church meaſures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million ſterling.

Weſtminſter-abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen's Walbrook, is admired for its lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for ſuch erections. Few churches in or about London are without ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent-Garden is worthy the pureſt ages of antient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them. The Banqueting-houſe at Whitehall, is but a very ſmall part of a noble palace, deſigned by Inigo Jones, for the royal reſidence, and as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its ſymmetry, and ornaments, are in the higheſt ſtile and execution of architecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes a mean, and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the fineſt of its kind that can be ſeen. Here are held the coronation feaſts of our kings and queens; alſo the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and above ſtairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is juſtly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the antients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps, made for

perſons

perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the Monument, next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically repreſented in bas relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation *, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhewing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upward of 13,000l.

The Royal Exchange is a large noble building, and is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000 l.

We might here give a deſcription of the Tower †, Bank of England, the New-treaſury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horſe-guards

* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Chriſt, 1666, Sept. 2, eaſtward from hence, at the diſtance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which driven on by a high wind, not only waſted the adjacent parts, but alſo very remote places, with incredible crackling and fury. It conſumed 89 churches, the city-gates, Guildhall, many public ſtructures, hoſpitals, ſchools, libraries, a vaſt number of ſtately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houſes, and 400 ſtreets. Of the 26 wards it utterly deſtroyed 15, and left eight others ſhattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the Tower by the Thames ſide to the Temple church; and from the north-eaſt along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the eſtates and fortunes of the city it was mercileſs, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things reſemble the laſt conflagration of the world. The deſtruction was ſudden; for in a ſmall ſpace of time the city was ſeen moſt flouriſhing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human counſels and endeavours; in the opinion of all, it ſtopped, as it were by a command from heaven, and was on every ſide extinguiſhed."

† In examining the curioſities of the Tower of London, it will be proper to begin with thoſe on the outſide the principal gate; the firſt thing a ſtranger uſually goes to viſit is the wild beaſts; which, from their ſituation, firſt preſent themſelves: for having entered the outer gate, and paſſed what is called the ſpur-guard, the keeper's houſe preſents itſelf before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell, and paying ſixpence each perſon, you may eaſily gain admittance.

The next place worthy of obſervation is the Mint, which comprehends near one-third of the Tower, and contains houſes for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On paſſing the principal gate you ſee the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, ſquare, irregular ſtone building, ſituated almoſt in the center, no one ſide anſwering to another, nor any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike. One of theſe towers is now converted into an obſervatory. In the firſt ſtory are two noble rooms, one of which is a ſmall armoury for the ſea-ſervice, it having various ſorts of arms, very curiouſly laid up, for above 10,000 ſeamen. In the other room are many cloſets and preſſes, all filled with warlike engines and inſtruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms; the other with arms and other warlike inſtruments, as ſpades, ſhovels, pick-axes, and cheveaux de frize. In the upper ſtory, are kept match, ſheep-ſkins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little-room, called Julius Cæſar's chapel, are depoſited ſome records, containing perhaps the antient uſages and cuſtoms of the place. In this building are alſo preſerved the models of the new-invented engines of deſtruction, that have from time to time been preſented to the government. Near the ſouthweſt angle of the White-Tower, is the Spaniſh armoury,

in

guards at White-hall, the Mews, where the king's horſes are kept; the Manſion-houſe of the lord-mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe,

in which are depoſited the ſpoils of what was vainly called the Invincible Armada; in order to perpetuate to lateſt poſterity, the memory of that ſignal victory, obtained by the Engliſh over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You now come to the grand ſtore-houſe, a noble building, to the northward of the White Tower, that extends 245 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. It was begun by king James II. who built it to the firſt floor; but it was finiſhed by king William III. who erected that magnificent room called the New, or Small Armoury, in which that prince, with queen Mary, his conſort, dined in great form, having all the warrant workmen and labourers to attend them, dreſſed in white gloves and aprons, the uſual badges of the order of maſonry. To this noble room you are led by a folding door, adjoining to the eaſt end of the Tower chapel, which leads to a grand ſtaircaſe of 50 eaſy ſteps. On the left ſide of the uppermoſt landing-place is the work-ſhop, in which are conſtantly employed about 14 furbiſhers, in cleaning, repairing, and new-placing the arms. On entering the armoury, you ſee what they call a wilderneſs of arms, ſo artfully diſpoſed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright, and fit for ſervice: a ſight which it is impoſſible to behold without aſtoniſhment; and beſide thoſe expoſed to view, there were, before the late war, 16 cheſts ſhut up, each cheſt holding about 1,200 muſkets. The arms were originally diſpoſed by Mr. Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gun-ſmith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a penſion from the crown for his ingenuity.

Upon the ground floor under the ſmall armoury, is a large room of equal dimenſions with that, ſupported by 20 pillars, all hung round with implements of war. This room, which is 24 feet high, has a paſſage in the middle 16 feet wide. At the ſight of ſuch a variety of the moſt dreadful engines of deſtruction, before whoſe thunder the moſt ſuperb edifices, the nobleſt works of art, and number of the human ſpecies, fall together in one common and undiſtinguiſhed ruin; one cannot help wiſhing that thoſe horrible inventions had ſtill lain, like a falſe conception, in the womb of nature, never to have been ripened into birth.

The horſe armoury is a plain brick building, a little to the eaſtward of the White Tower; and is an edifice rather convenient than elegant, where the ſpectator is entertained with a repreſentation of thoſe kings and heroes of our own nation, with whoſe gallant actions it is to be ſuppoſed he is well acquainted; ſome of them equipped and ſitting on horſeback, in the ſame bright and ſhining armour they were uſed to wear when they performed thoſe glorious actions that give them a diſtinguiſhed place in the Britiſh annals.

You now come to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reverſing the order of chronology; ſo that in following them we muſt place the laſt firſt.

In a dark, ſtrong, ſtone room, about 20 yards to the eaſtward of the grand ſtore-houſe, or new armoury, the crown jewels are depoſited. I. The imperial crown, with which it is pretended that all the kings of England have been crowned ſince Edward the Confeſſor, in 1042. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, ſaphires and pearls: the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. They are however miſtaken in ſhewing this as the ancient imperial diadem of St. Edward; for that, with the other moſt ancient regalia of this kingdom, was kept in the arched room in the cloiſters in Weſtminſter Abbey, till the grand rebellion; when in 1642, Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke open the iron cheſt in which it was ſecured, took it thence, and ſold it, together with the robes, ſword, and ſcepter, of St. Edward. However, after the reſtoration, king Charles II. had one made in imitation of it, which is that now ſhewn. II. The golden orb or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned; and borne in his left hand with the ſceptre in his right, upon his return into Weſtminſter-Hall after he is crowned. It is about ſix inches in diameter, edged with pearl, and enriched with precious ſtones. On the top is an amethyſt, of a violet colour, near an inch and an half in height, ſet with a rich croſs of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious ſtones.

The

houſe, India-houſe, and a vaſt number of other public buildings; beſide the magnificent edifices raiſed by our nobility; as Charlton-

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The whole height of the ball and cup is 11 inches. III. The golden ſcepter, with its croſs ſet upon a large amethyſt of great value, garniſhed round with table diamonds. The handle of the ſcepter is plain; but the pummel is ſet round with rubies, emeralds and ſmall diamonds. The top riſes into a *fleur de lis* of ſix leaves, all enriched with precious ſtones, from whence iſſues a mound or ball, made of the amethyſt already mentioned. The croſs is quite covered with precious ſtones. IV. The ſcepter with the dove, the emblem of peace, perched on the top of a ſmall Jeruſalem croſs, finely ornamented with table diamonds and jewels of great value. This emblem was firſt uſed by Edward the Confeſſor, as appears by his ſeal; but the ancient ſcepter and dove was ſold with the reſt of the regalia, and this now in the Tower was made after the reſtoration. V. St. Edward's ſtaff, four feet ſeven inches and a half in length, and three inches three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the king at his coronation. VI. The rich crown of ſtate, worn by his majeſty in parliament; in which is a large emerald ſeven inches round; a pearl eſteemed the fineſt in the world, and a ruby of ineſtimable value. VII. The crown belonging to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales. The king wears his crown on his head while he ſits upon the throne; but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to ſhew that he is not yet come to it. VIII. The late queen Mary's crown, globe, and ſcepter, with the diadem ſhe wore at her coronation with her conſort king William III. IX. An ivory ſcepter, with a dove on the top, made for king James II.'s queen, whoſe garniture is gold, and the dove on the top gold, enamelled with white. X. The *curtana*, or ſword of mercy, which has a blade thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two ſwords of juſtice, ſpiritual and temporal. XI. The golden ſpurs, and the armillas, which are bracelets for the wriſts. Theſe, though very antique, are worn at the coronation. XII. The *ampulla*, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with; and the golden ſpoon that the biſhop pours the oil into. Theſe are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedeſtal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expand about ſeven inches. The whole weighs about ten ounces. The head of the eagle ſcrews off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow, for holding the holy oil; and when the king is anointed by the biſhop, the oil is poured into the ſpoon out of the bird's bill. XIII. A rich ſalt-ſeller of ſtate, in form like the ſquare White Tower, and ſo exquiſitely wrought, that the workmanſhip of modern times is in no degree equal to it. It is of gold, and uſed only on the king's table at the coronation. XIV. A noble ſilver font, double gilt, and elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are chriſtened. XV. A large ſilver fountain, preſented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curiouſly wrought; but much inferior in beauty to the above. Beſides theſe, which are commonly ſhewn, there are in the jewel office, all the crown jewels worn by the prince and princeſſes at coronations, and a great variety of curious old plate.

The Record Office conſiſts of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept. Theſe are all handſomely wainſcoted, the wainſcot being framed into preſſes round each room, within which are ſhelves, and repoſitories for the records; and for the eaſier finding of them, the year of each reign is inſcribed on the inſide of theſe preſſes, and the records placed a cordingly. Within theſe preſſes, which amount to 56 in number, are depoſited all the rolls, from the firſt year of the reign of king John, to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. but thoſe after this laſt period are kept in the rolls chapel. The records in the Tower, among other things, contain, the foundation of abbies, and other religious houſes; the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a ſurvey of the manors; the original of laws and ſtatutes; proceedings of the courts of common law and equity; the rights of England to the dominion of the Britiſh ſeas; leagues and treaties with foreign princes; the atchievements of England in foreign wars; the ſettlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion; the

forms

Charlton-houſe, Marlborough-houſe, and Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's park; the duke of Montague's, and the duke of Richmond's, in the Privy-garden; the earl of Cheſterfield's houſe, near Hyde-park; the duke of Devonſhire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's, in Berkeley-Square; Northumberland-houſe, in the Strand; the houſes of the dukes of Newcaſtle and Queenſberry; of lord Bateman; of general Wade in Saville-row; the earl of Granville's, Mr. Pelham's, the duke of Bedford's, and Montague houſe *, in Bloomſbury; with a great number of others of the nobility and gentry; but theſe would be ſufficient to fill a large volume.

This great city is happily ſupplied with abundance of freſh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable ſervice to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where diſperſed, the keys of which are depoſited with the pariſh officers, the city is, in a great meaſure, ſecured from

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forms of ſubmiſſion of ſome Scottiſh kings, for territories held in England; ancient grants of our kings to their ſubjects; privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations during the period above-mentioned; enrollments of charters and deeds made before the conqueſt; the bounds of all the foreſts in England, with the ſeveral reſpective rights of the inhabitants to common paſture, and many other important records, all regularly diſpoſed, and referred to in near a thouſand folio indexes. This office is kept open, and attendance conſtantly given, from ſeven o'clock till one, except in the months of December, January and February, when it is open only from eight to one, Sundays and holidays excepted. A ſearch here is half a guinea, for which you may peruſe any one ſubject a year.

* The Britiſh Muſeum is depoſited in Montague houſe. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the Britiſh Muſeum; for its being eſtabliſhed by parliament, was only in conſequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural hiſtory, his large library, and his numerous curioſities, which coſt him 50,000 l. to the uſe of the public on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000 l. to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuſcripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchaſed likewiſe by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majeſty, in conſideration of its great uſefulneſs, was graciouſly pleaſed to add thereto, the royal libraries of books and manuſcripts collected by the ſeveral kings of England.

The Sloanian collection conſiſts of an amazing number of curioſities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuſcripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals, and coins, ancient and modern, 23,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals 268. Veſſels, &c. of agate, jaſper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious ſtones, agates, jaſper, &c. 2,256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Cryſtals, ſpars, &c. 1,864. Foſſils, flints, ſtones, 1,275. Earths, ſands, ſalts, 1,035. Bitumens, ſulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Talcs, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, ſpunges, &c. 1,421. Teſtacea, or ſhells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 659. Aſteriæi trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Cruſtaceæ, crabs, lobſters, &c. 363. Stellæ, marinæ, ſtar-fiſhes, &c. 173. Fiſh, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and neſts, of different ſpecies, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, ſerpents, &c. 521. Inſects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus, ſiccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miſcellaneous things, natural, 2,098. Mathematical inſtruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

from the ſpreading of fire; for theſe plugs are no ſooner opened than there is vaſt quantities of water to ſupply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage, it has given riſe to ſeveral companies, who inſure houſes and goods, from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is ſmall *, and the recovery, in caſe of loſs, is eaſy and certain. Every one of theſe offices, keep a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their aſſiſtance in caſe of fire; and who are on all occaſions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent; but though all their labours ſhould prove unſucceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that muſt ariſe from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has inſured.

If the uſe and advantage of public magnificence is conſidered as a national concern, it will be found to be of the utmoſt conſequence, in promoting the welfare of mankind, as that attention to it, which encouragement will produce, muſt neceſſarily ſtimulate the powers of invention and ingenuity, and of courſe create employment for great numbers of artiſts, who, excluſive of the reward of their abilities, cannot fail of ſtriking out many things which will do honour to themſelves, and to their country. This conſideration alone, is without doubt highly worthy of a commercial people; it is this which gives the preference to one country, in compariſon with another, and it is this which diſtinguiſhes the genius of a people, in the moſt ſtriking manner.

London, before the conflagration in 1666, when that great city (which like moſt others had ariſen from ſmall beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune, many melancholy proofs are authenticated in

	s.	d.
* The terms of inſurance are as follows, viz. every perſon inſuring, ſhall pay for every 100 l. inſured on goods, incloſed in brick or ſtone	2	0
If half hazardous, as to ſituation, or kind of goods	3	0
If hazardous	4	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	5	0
If hazardous, and hazardous	6	0
For every 100 l. inſured on goods, incloſed in part brick, and part timber	2	6
If half hazardous, as to ſituation, or kind of goods	3	9
If hazardous	5	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	6	3
If hazardous and hazardous	7	6
For every 100 l. inſured on goods, incloſed in timber	3	0
If half hazardous, as to ſituation, or kind of goods	4	6
If hazardous	6	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	7	6
If hazardous, and hazardous	9	0

The premium is double upon any ſum between one and two thouſand, and treble between two and three thouſand pounds.

in hiſtory, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumſtances, ſuch as the want of water, rendered the city ſcarce ever free from peſtilential devaſtation. The fire which conſumed the greateſt part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of conſequences, which made ample amends for the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city aroſe on the ruins of the old, but, tho' more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet by no means anſwered to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in ſome particulars, as ſhall be hereafter mentioned, and it is ever to be lamented (ſuch was the infatuation of thoſe times) that the magnificent, elegant and uſeful plan of the great Sir Chriſtopher Wren, was totally diſregarded and ſacrificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been aſſerted, muſt have been the reſult, the metropolis of this kingdom would inconteſtably have been the moſt magnificent and elegant city in the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt from the prodigious reſort of foreigners of diſtinction, and taſte, who would have viſited it, have become an inexhauſtible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindneſs of that age, has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is become abſolutely neceſſary, that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the preſent plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the character of the richeſt and moſt powerful people in the world.

The plan of London in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition, as can poſſibly be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the borders of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are deſpicable and inconvenient beyond conception. Let any one who has a tolerable taſte, and ſome idea of public magnificence, give himſelf the trouble of conſidering the ſtate of the buildings, quays, and wharfs, on both ſides the river Thames, from Chelſea to Blackwall, on the one hand, and from Batterſea to Greenwich on the other; and he will be immediately convinced that there is not one convenient, well-regulated ſpot (as the buildings thereon are at preſent diſpoſed) either for buſineſs or elegance, in that whole extent. After he has conſidered the ſtate of the banks of the river, he may continue his obſervation upon the interior parts of the town, and naturally turn his eyes upon thoſe uſeful places to the trading part of the world,

Wapping, Rotherhithe, and Southwark, all contiguous to the Thames, and all entirely deſtitute of that uſeful regularity, convenience, and utility, ſo very deſirable in commercial cities. The obſerver may from hence direct his view to Tower-hill, the Cuſtom-houſe, Thames-ſtreet, Watling-ſtreet, and the paſſages to London-bridge; thence to the miſerably contrived avenues into Spitalfields, Whitechapel, and Moorfields. He may conſider the ſituation of St. Paul's, and other churches, that of the Monument, the Companies halls, and other public buildings, that are thruſt up in corners, and placed in ſuch a manner as muſt tempt every foreigner to believe that they were deſigned to be concealed. The obſerver may next take in all thoſe wretched parts which he will find on both ſides the Fleet-market; neceſſity will oblige him to proceed into Smithfield, for the ſake of breathing a freſher air; and when he has conſidered a ſpot, capable of the greateſt advantages, but deſtitute of any, he may plunge into the deplorable avenues and horrid paſſages in that neighbourhood. He may thence proceed to Baldwin's Gardens, through the ruins of which if he eſcapes without hurt, he may reach Gray's-Inn lane; which, though one of the principal avenues to this metropolis, is deſpicable beyond conception. From thence he may travel into Holborn, where the firſt object that preſents itſelf to view, is Middle-row, a nuiſance univerſally deteſted, but ſuffered to remain a public diſgrace to the fineſt ſtreet in London. He may hobble on with ſome ſatisfaction, until he arrives at Broad St. Giles's, where, if he can bear to ſee a fine ſituation covered with ruinous buildings, and inhabited by the moſt deplorable objects that human nature can furniſh, he may viſit the environs. From hence he may proceed along Oxford-road, and ſtriking into the town on which hand he pleaſes, he will obſerve the fineſt ſituation covered with a profuſion of deformity, that has been obtruded on the public, for want of a general, well regulated, limited plan, which ſhould have been enforced by commiſſioners appointed by authority, men of ſound judgment, taſte, and activity; had that happily been the caſe, all the glaring abſurdities, which are perpetually ſtaring in the faces, and inſulting the underſtandings of perſons of ſcience and taſte, would never have had exiſtence. But private property, and pitiful, mean underſtandings, ſuited to the capacities of the projectors, have taken place of that regularity and elegance, which a general plan would have produced; and nothing ſeems to have been conſidered for 20 years paſt, but the intereſt of a few taſteleſs builders, who have entered into a combination, with no other view than fleecing the public, and of extending and diſtorting the town, till they have rendered

rendered it completely ridiculous. From hence the obſerver, in his road to the city of Weſtminſter, may have a peep at St. James's, the reſidence of the moſt powerful and reſpectable monarch in the univerſe: a prince, who is himſelf a lover of the arts, and under whoſe happy auſpices artiſts of real merit and ingenuity can never doubt of obtaining patronage and encouragement. The obſerver will not be better ſatisfied when he has reached Weſtminſter, when he conſiders what might have been done, and how little has been done, when ſo fine an opportunity preſented itſelf. From Weſtminſter-bridge he may conduct himſelf into St. George's Fields; one of the few ſpots about London which has not yet fallen a ſacrifice to the depraved taſte of modern builders; here he may indulge himſelf with the contemplation of what advantageous things may yet be done for this hitherto neglected metropolis.

From what has been ſaid of the cities of London and Weſtminſter, there cannot remain the leaſt doubt but that their ſtate, with regard to magnificence, elegance, or conveniency, is in ſuch places very deſpicable; but we have the pleaſure to find, that the neceſſity of rendering them otherwiſe is now become a matter of ſerious concern to perſons in power; and that ſome general plan is likely to be formed and obſerved for their improvement. In the cities of Paris, Edinburgh, Rotterdam, and other places, the government takes cognizance of all public buildings, both uſeful and ornamental.

We might in this place take notice of the very elegant, uſeful, and neceſſary improvement, by the preſent method of paving and enlightning the ſtreets, upon the plan of the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh; an improvement which is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles round upon the ſame plan; and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide, at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſafe by watchmen placed within a call of each other, who are protected from the weather by proper boxes. Nothing can appear more brilliant than thoſe lights when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads run acroſs; and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New Bond-ſtreet, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence; upon the whole, there never was, in any age or country, a public ſcheme adopted which reflects more glory upon government, or does greater honour to the perſon who originally propoſed and ſupported it.

The embanking the river, and many other improvements now in agitation, as well as the taſte and public ſpirit of ſome ruling men, give reaſon to hope, that this hitherto neglected metropolis will become, in point of beauty, conveniency, and

elegance, what it is in wealth and commerce, the glory of the iſland, the admiration of every ſtranger, and the firſt city on earth.

Windſor caſtle is the only fabric that deſerves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation; which, with the form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton Court was the favourite reſidence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and like Windſor lies near the Thames. Both theſe places have ſome good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which, for deſign and expreſſion, are reckoned the maſter-pieces of painting, have by his preſent majeſty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-Court, to the queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kenſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens, which are laid out in a grand taſte. Other houſes, though belonging to the king, are far from deſerving the name of royal.

Foreigners have been puzzled to account how it happens that the monarchs of the richeſt nation in Europe ſhould be ſo indifferently lodged, eſpecially as Charles I. whoſe finances were but low, compared to ſome of his ſucceſſors, had he lived undiſturbed, would more than probably have completed the auguſt plan which Inigo Jones drew for a royal palace, and which would have been every way ſuitable to an Engliſh monarch's dignity. The truth is, his ſon Charles II. though he had a fine taſte for architecture, diſſipated his revenues upon his pleaſures. The reign of his brother was too ſhort for ſuch an undertaking. Perpetual wars during the reigns of king William and queen Ann, left the parliament no money to ſpare for a palace. The two ſucceeding monarchs were indifferent as to ſuch a piece of grandeur in England; and though ſeveral ſchemes were drawn up for that purpoſe, yet they came to nothing, eſpecially as three millions of money were neceſſary for carrying it into execution. We have, however, every thing to expect during the preſent reign, when architecture and magnificence ſhine out in their full luſtre.

It would be needleſs, and, indeed, endleſs, to attempt even a catalogue of the houſes of the nobility and gentry in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom. They are by far more ſuperb and elegant than the ſubjects of any

other nation can display; witneſs thoſe of the duke of Devonſhire, the counteſs of Leiceſter, lord Scarſdale, the earl Temple, and earl Pembroke, where more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the poſſeſſion of any ſubject in the world; Sir Gregory Page, the earl of Tilney, and hundreds of others equally grand and ſumptuous. But thoſe capital houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and all kept in the higheſt preſervation. It often happens, that the houſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the principal object of the ſeat, which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations. Viſtas, opening landſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that I ſhould here enter into a detail of the chief towns of England; which, to ſay the truth, have little beſides their commerce, and the conveniency of their ſituation, to recommend them, though ſome of them have noble public buildings and bridges. Briſtol is thought to be the largeſt city in the Britiſh dominions, after London and Dublin, and to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. No nation in the world can ſhew ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniencies for the conſtruction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regular fortification in England) Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hoſpital at Greenwich for ſuperannuated ſeamen, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence. In ſhort, every town in England is noted for ſome particular production or manufacture, to which its building and appearance are generally fitted; and though England contains many excellent and commodious ſea-ports, yet all of them have an immediate connection with London, which is the common centre of national commerce.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, or Daniſh, and Anglo-Normannic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon antient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities, are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of ſacred worſhip in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circles, and two ovals,

which are thus compoſed. The upright ſtones are placed at three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at top by over-thwart ſtones, with tennons fitted to the mortiſes in the uprights, for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are vaſtly large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chiſſel, and ſomething tapered; but the tranſomes, or over-thwart ſtones, are quite plain. The outſide circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter; between which, and the next circle, there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurprizing and awful effect on the beholders. After all the deſcriptions of, and diſſertations upon, this celebrated antiquity, by ingenious writers, it is not to be denied, that it has given riſe to many extravagant ridiculous conjectures, from the time of Leland, who has been very particular on the ſubject, down to Stukeley, who, on a favourite point of antiquity, ſometimes formed the moſt enthuſiaſtic conjectures. The barrows that are near this monument, were certainly graves of perſons of both ſexes, eminent in peace or war; ſome of them having been opened, and bones, arms, and antient trinkets, found within them.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge, are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the iſles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England, conſiſt chiefly of altars, and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's hill near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermen-ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pomfret to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out to the weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. There would, however, be no end of deſcribing the veſtiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which ſerve as foundations to our preſent highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a noble plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but

but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortifications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe, that they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England, though it is certain from the baths and teſſerated pavements, that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers and magiſtrates, lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles, are blended with thoſe of a later date; and it is difficult for the moſt expert architect to pronounce that ſome halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitaries, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, that have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Firth, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch, but Severus built it with ſtone forts, and turrets, at proper diſtances, ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military high way to the ſouth. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to ſtrike the Scots and Picts with terror, than to give any real ſecurity to the Roman poſſeſſions. In ſome places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly diſcernible, and the latter ſerves as a foundation for a modern work of the ſame kind, carried on at the public expence. A critical account of the Roman antiquities in England, is among the deſiderata of hiſtory, but perhaps it is too great a deſign for any one man to execute, as it cannot be done without viſiting every place, and every object in perſon.

The Saxon antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly in eccleſiaſtical edifices, and places of ſtrength. At Wincheſter is ſhewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been diſputed by Cambden, and later writers, perhaps with reaſon; but if it is not Britiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Wincheſter, ſerved as the burying place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe bones were collected together by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity, preſent themſelves all over the kingdom, though they are

often not to be diſcerned from the Normannic; and the Britiſh Muſeum contains ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters ſigned by the king, and his nobles, with a plain croſs inſtead of their names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs. The Daniſh erections in England, are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps are round, and generally built upon eminences, but their forts are ſquare.

All England is full of Anglo Normannic monuments, which I chuſe to call ſo, becauſe, though the princes, under whom they were raiſed, were of Norman original, yet the expence was defrayed by Engliſhmen, with Engliſh money. Yorkminſter, and Weſtminſter-hall, and abbey, are perhaps the fineſt ſpecimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner, which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals, and old churches in the kingdom, are more or leſs in the ſame taſte, if we except St. Paul's. In ſhort, thoſe erections are ſo common, that they ſcarcely deſerve the name of curioſities. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in ſome parts of England, are Britiſh, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old caſtle of Ryegate in Surry, is very remarkable, and ſeems to have been deſigned for ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invaſion. It contains an oblong ſquare hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitting upon; and tradition ſays, that it was the room in which the barons of England met, during their wars with king John. The rock itſelf is ſoft, and very practicable; but it is hard to ſay, where the excavation, which is continued in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four wide, terminates, becauſe the work is fallen in in ſome places.

The natural curioſities of England are ſo various, that I can touch upon them only in general; as there is no end of deſcribing the ſeveral medicinal waters and ſprings, which are to be found in every part of the country. They have been analyſed with great accuracy and care, by ſeveral learned naturaliſts, who, as their intereſts, or inclinations led them, have not been ſparing in recommending their ſalubrious qualities. England, however, is not ſingular in its medicinal waters, though in ſome countries the diſcovering and examining them is ſcarce worth while. In England, a much frequented well or ſpring, is a certain eſtate to its proprietor. The moſt remarkable of theſe wells have been divided into thoſe for bathing,

bathing, and thoſe for purging. The chief of the former lie in Somerſetſhire; and the Bath waters are famous through all the world, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the ſame kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkſhire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epſom and Dulwich in Surry; Acton and Iſlington in Middleſex. Here alſo are many remarkable ſprings; whereof ſome are impregnated either with ſalt, as that at Droitwich in Worceſter; or ſulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire; and a dropping well in the weſt riding of Yorkſhire. And finally, ſome ebb and flow, as thoſe of the Peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, whoſe waters riſe and fall ſeveral times in an hour. To theſe we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's caſtle in Herefordſhire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of ſmall bones, like thoſe of frogs or fiſh, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancaſhire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any ſmell; yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out with the ſtream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hours, and emits ſo fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itſelf will not burn when taken out of the well.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mouldering away, but never diminiſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the ſame place: this is a chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminiſhing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the laſt 80 were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for ſeveral paces, is very low, but ſoon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſome have aſſerted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimenſion: a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-ecchoed on all ſides, very much to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the ſides, have an amuſing effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides, but as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the help of a ſtrong imagination,

imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder, which is from its hideouſneſs, named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who ſeem in a great meaſure to ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, which is croſſed by four ſtreams of water, and then is thought impaſſable. The vault, in ſeveral places, makes a noble appearance, which is particularly beautiful, by being chequered by various coloured ſtones. Theſe are the moſt celebrated natural excavations in England, where they are beheld with great wonder, but are nothing comparable to thoſe that exiſt in Germany, and other parts, both of Europe and Aſia.

Some ſpots of England are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkſhire, are found certain ſtones, reſembling the folds and wreaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, and ſo exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broke, do commonly contain the form and likeneſs of ſerpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glouceſterſhire, ſtones are found, reſembling cockles, oiſters, and other teſtaceous marine animals. Thoſe curioſities, however, in other countries, would, as ſuch, make but a poor appearance, and even in England they are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This article is ſo copious, and has been ſo well diſcuſſed in former publications, many of which are maſter-pieces in their kind, that the reader, I hope, will not expect that I enter into minutiæ. It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raiſed the Engliſh to be at this day the firſt and moſt powerful people in the world. Hiſtorical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth, that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of commerce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, Virginia particularly, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her ſubjects; and indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes for the Engliſh trade. The Eaſt-India company owes to him their ſucceſs and exiſtence, and the Britiſh America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies riſe under him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and their gradations have terminated in the preſent glorious ſtate of the nation. It is not within my deſign to follow commerce through all her fluctuations and ſtates. This would

would be an idle attempt, and it has already taken up large volumes. The nature of a geographical work, requires only a repreſentation of the preſent ſtate of commerce in every country; and in this light I flatter myſelf that I ſhall be able to treat of it with more preciſion, than former writers upon the ſame ſubject.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to have taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſtates, and made all the Popiſh powers our enemies.

We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it became neceſſary for us alſo to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighbours; and, if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become the great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined, that an American conqueſt or plantation would certainly fill the mother country with gold and ſilver.

The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of ſovereignty aroſe, called naval dominion.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power was at firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the newly diſcovered countries between them; but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeized by him, he was maſter of the ſhips of the two nations, with which he kept all the coaſts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raiſed at a vaſt expence for the conqueſt of England, was deſtroyed; which put a ſtop, and almoſt an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure the inſolence of their maſters; they therefore revolted; and after a ſtruggle, in which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independant and powerful common-wealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their ſyſtem of government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to form ſchemes of future proſperity; they eaſily

eaſily perceived that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve themſelves only by that power, which is the conſequence of wealth; and that by a people whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired, but from foreign dominions, and by the tranſportation of the products of one country into another.

From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of commerce, which was for many years proſecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs, perhaps never ſeen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impaſſible bogs, erected themſelves into high and mighty ſtates, who ſet the greateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance was courted by the proudeſt, and whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt nations. By the eſtabliſhment of this ſtate, there aroſe to England a new ally, and a new rival.

At this time, which ſeems to be the period deſtined for the change of the face of Europe, France began firſt to riſe into power, and from defending her own provinces with difficulty and fluctuating ſucceſs, to threaten her neighbours with incroachments and devaſtations. Henry IV. having, after a long ſtruggle, obtained the crown, found it eaſy to govern nobles, exhauſted and wearied by a long civil war; and having compoſed the diſputes between the Proteſtants and Papiſts, ſo as to obtain, at leaſt, a truce for both parties, was at leiſure to accumulate treaſure, and raiſe forces which he propoſed to have employed in a deſign of ſettling for ever the balance of Europe. Of this great ſcheme he lived not to ſee the vanity, or feel the diſappointment; for he was murdered in the midſt of his mighty preparations.

The French, however, were in this reign taught to know their own power; and the great deſigns of a king, whoſe wiſdom they had ſo long experienced, even though they were not brought to actual experiment, diſpoſed them to conſider themſelves as maſters of the deſtiny of their neighbours; and from that time he that ſhall nicely examine their ſchemes and conduct, will find that they began to take an air of ſuperiority, to which they had never pretended before; and that they have been always employed more or leſs openly, upon ſchemes of dominion, though with frequent interruptions from domeſtic troubles.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced only 36,000 l. a year; at the reſtoration, they were let to farm for 400,000 l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and but very little trade,

trade, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now above ſix times that number. In thoſe days, we had not only our naval ſtores, but our ſhips from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thouſand other things came from France. Portugal furniſhed us with ſugars; all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt-Indies at their own price. In ſhort, the legal intereſt of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our land 10 or 12 years purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall, and our ſhipping much inferior to what now belong to our American colonies.

Such was the ſtate of our trade when this great princeſs came to the throne; but, as we have already obſerved, the limits of our undertaking do not permit us to give a detail of the gradual progreſs of commerce ſince that reign, we flatter ourſelves that the Britiſh reader will not be diſpleaſed with the following view of our extenſive trade, at preſent carried on through the various nations of the globe.

Great-Britain is, of all other countries, the moſt proper for trade; as well from its ſituation, as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, and from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation: our country produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities, as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pitcoal, alum, ſaffron, &c. Our corn ſometimes preſerves other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations, for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biſcuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreigners that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible, is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes, houſhold-ſtuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, ſaffron, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is ſcarce a manufacture in Europe, but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unneceſſary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hard-ware is another capital

capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſhold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, alſo are very great articles; our clocks and watches are in very great eſteem. There are but few manufactures we are defective in. In thoſe of lace and paper we do not ſeem to excel; but we import much more than we ſhould, if the duty on Britiſh paper were taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woollen manufacture is ſtill the great foundation and ſupport of it.

Our American colonies are the objects that naturally firſt preſent themſelves for our diſcuſſion, and they may be divided into two claſſes, our poſſeſſions on the continent, and thoſe in the iſlands, which go under the name of the Weſt-Indies.

I ſhall rank the Engliſh poſſeſſions in North-America, under the heads of the following colonies, viz. Hudſon's Bay, Labrador, Newfoundland, Canada, Nova-Scotia, New-England, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, and New-Hampſhire, (the three laſt forming one colony) New York, Penſylvania, and Maryland, (originally but one colony) North-Carolina, South-Carolina, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt Florida. The chief commodities exported from Great-Britain to thoſe colonies, are wrought iron, ſteel, copper, pewter, lead, and braſs, cordage, hemp, ſail-cloth, ſhip-chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hoſiery, haberdaſhery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, ſtuffs, flannels, Colcheſter bays, long ell ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, Mancheſter goods, Britiſh, foreign, and Iriſh linens, earthen wares, grind-ſtones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, ſadlery, cabinet wares, ſeeds, cheeſe, ſtrong beer, ſmoaking pipes, ſnuffs, wines, ſpirits, and drugs, Eaſt-India goods, books, paper, leather, beſides many other articles, according to the different wants and exigencies of the different colonies, impoſſible to be enumerated here.

The commodities exported from America to Great Britain, and other markets, are tobacco, rice, flour, biſcuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, Indian corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; ſalt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, veniſon, tongues, butter and cheeſe, prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fiſh, and fiſh oil; furs and ſkins of wild beaſts, ſuch as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon; horſes, and live ſtock; timber planks, maſts, boards, ſtaves, ſhingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ſhips built for ſale; flax, flax-ſeed, and cotton; indigo, pot-aſh, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; beſides many other commodities peculiar to the climes and ſoil of different provinces. As to thoſe, which have been acquired by the laſt general peace, they are certainly very improveable, nor can we form any judgment of them,

them, in their present infantine unsettled state. It does not enter within my design, nor indeed does it fall within my subject, to recapitulate the differences that unhappily subsist at present between those colonies, and their mother country. It is sufficient if I exhibit a state of the trade between them, as it existed when those differences took place, marking at the same time the commercial strength and shipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Great Britain.	Exports from the Colonies.
Hudson's Bay	4	130	*L.* 16,000	*L.* 29,340
Labrador, American vessels 120				49,050
Newfoundland (3000 boats)	380	20,560	273,400	345,000
Canada	34	408	105,000	105,500
Nova Scotia	6	72	26,500	38,000
New England	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire	3	36	12,000	114,500
New York	30	330	531,000	526,000
Pensylvania	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North Carolina	34	408	18,000	68,350
South Carolina	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia	24	240	49,000	74,200
East Florida	2	24	7,000	
West ditto	10	120	97,000	63,000
	1,078	28,910	3,370,900	3,924,606

The principal islands belonging to the English, in the West Indies, are the Bermudas, or Summer islands; the Bahama, or Lucayan islands; Jamaica, Anguilla, Berbuda, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, Dominica, St. Vincent, Barbados, Tobago, and Granada, and the Grenadines, or Grenadillos. Of these, Dominica, St. Vincent, Tobago, and Granada, were ceded by France to Great-Britain, by the definitive treaty of 1763.

The English trade with their West India islands, consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany, and manchineel planks, drugs and preserves; for these the exports from England are osnaburgs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West-Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broadcloth, and kersies, for the planters, their overseers and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and hats; millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chissels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes,

planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, ſnuffs, and in general whatever is raiſed or manufactured in Great Britain; alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſorts of India goods. Formerly the Engliſh Weſt India iſlands, ſent home large quantities of money in ſpecie, which they got upon the balance of trade with the French, Spaniards, and Portugueſe. We cannot, however, ſpeak with any preciſion, as to the particulars of the trade between the Engliſh Weſt Indies, and the mother country, though undoubtedly it is highly for the benefit of the latter, becauſe of the ceſſions made of new iſlands there by the late peace, which, when fully peopled, muſt have a very ſenſible influence upon the former ſyſtem of commerce in thoſe parts, as I ſhall have occaſion to obſerve in its proper place.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous, political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the hiſtory of the Eaſt India trade, within theſe twenty years paſt, and the company's concerns in that country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that beſides their ſettlements on the coaſt of India, which they enjoy under proper reſtrictions, by act of parliament, they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indoſtan, acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as renders them the moſt formidable commercial republic (for ſo it may be called in its preſent ſituation) that has been known in the world ſince the demolition of Carthage. Their r venues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are choſen annually by the proprietors of the ſtock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that it amounts annually to above three millions and a half ſterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining thoſe acquiſitions, are certainly very great; but after theſe are defrayed, the company not only clears a vaſt ſum, but is able to pay to the government four hundred thouſand pounds yearly, for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification, for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for thoſe poſſeſſions that are territorial and not commercial. This republic therefore cannot be ſaid to be independent, and it is hard to ſay what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired.

This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and

and quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw-ſilk, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain, or China ware, ſalt-petre for home conſumption; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I ſhall now proceed to a conciſe view of the Engliſh trade to other countries, according to the lateſt, and moſt authentic accounts.

To Turkey England ſends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdegris, ſpices, cochineel, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles. Formerly the balance of this trade was about 500,000 l. annually, in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards diminiſhed through the practices of the French: but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh. It is to be preſumed, if the Ruſſians are ſuffered to drive the Turks out of Europe, that Great-Britain will ſecure to herſelf a port in one of the numerous fine iſlands of the Levant.

England exports to Italy, woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury: the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000 l.

To Spain, England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron and braſs manufactures; haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany, and elſewhere, for her American colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wools, indico, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

Portugal, till of late, was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whoſe fleets and armies have more than once ſaved her from deſtruction. Of late her miniſtry have changed their ſyſtem, and have fallen in with the views of the houſe of Bourbon. They have eſtabliſhed courts, which are inconſiſtent with the treaties between Portugal and England, and defraud the Engliſh merchants of great parts of their capitals, which they find it impoſſible to recover. They have likewiſe erected two Brazil companies; the one for Maranham, and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco, greatly to the detriment of the Engliſh rights. The court of London is, at this time, by its miniſters, making the ſtrongeſt efforts for redreſs, and it is to be hoped they will be attended with

ſucceſs, as Portugal itſelf cannot exiſt even as a kingdom, but by the protection of the Engliſh. Before theſe miſunderſtandings happened, the Engliſh trade to Portugal was highly beneficial for both nations. England ſent to that country almoſt the ſame kind of merchandizes as to Spain, and they received in return vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

To France, England ſends much tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and ſometimes corn; and always much money at the long run; and brings home, in a ſmuggling way, a much greater value in wines, brandies, linen, cambrics, lace, velvets, and many other prohibited fopperies, and brocades; always very conſiderably to England's diſadvantage. But as there is no commercial treaty ſubſiſting between England and France, not even in time of peace, England's juſt loſs cannot be aſcertained.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loſes upon the balance 250,000 l. ſterling yearly. To Germany, England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt India merchandize; and brings thence vaſt quantities of linen, thread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, timbers for all uſes, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000 l. annually, to the prejudice of England, but that ſum is now greatly reduced, as moſt of the German princes now find it their intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England, but the balance is now vaſtly diminiſhed by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron-works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandize; ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes returns in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is uſually ſuppoſed to be much in favour of England. I ſhall forbear to mention the trade between England and Ireland, till I come to treat of the latter kingdom.

The acquiſitions which the Engliſh have made upon the coaſt of Guinea, particularly their ſettlement at Senegal, have opened

opened new ſources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in poſſeſſion of Senegal, traded there for gold, ſlaves, hides, oſtrich feathers, bees-wax, millet, ambergris, and, above all, for that uſeful commodity, gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch. At preſent England ſends to the coaſt of Guinea, ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen and linen, iron, pewter, braſs and hardware manufactures, lead-ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glaſs manufactures. And, beſides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it ſupplies her American colonies with negro ſlaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, red wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Perſia, China, and other parts of Aſia, England ſends much foreign ſilver coin and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from thoſe remote regions, muſlins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought ſilk, chints; teas, porcelain, gold duſt, coffee, ſalt-petre, and many other drugs. And ſo great a quantity of thoſe various merchandize are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compenſates for all the ſilver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the Eaſt-India, South-Sea, Hudſon's-Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who propoſes to trade thither, muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſes of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at ſeven millions ſterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported; ſo that if this calculation is true, England gains, annually, three millions ſterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the moſt experienced merchants, and ableſt calculators, differ. After all that has been ſaid, it muſt be acknowledged, that many exceptions lie to particular eſtimates. The vaſt improvements at home, in iron, ſilk, linen, and other manufactures, and the growing imports from America, muſt greatly diminiſh the Engliſh imports from abroad. On the other hand, ſome of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivalling the Engliſh manufactures. With what ſucceſs they may be attended, time alone can

determine; but hitherto, the appearances on their ſide are not very promiſing.

Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one ſixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and ſilver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa; but great part of this gold and ſilver we again export to Holland, and the Eaſt Indies; and it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

We ſhall conclude this account of our trade, with the following comparative view of ſhipping, which, till a better table can be formed, may have its uſes.

If the ſhipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,

Great Britain, &c. is computed to have	6
The United Provinces	6
Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia	2
The trading cities of Germany, and the Auſtrian Netherlands	1
France	2
Spain and Portugal	2
Italy, and the reſt of Europe	1

My bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where thoſe Engliſh manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated; a few general ſtrictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire manufactures cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone lace, ſtockings and caps. Briſtol, which is both a city and county, is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs-bottle and drinking-glaſs one alone occupying fifteen large houſes: its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Vaſt manufactures of all kinds, glaſs in particular, are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London and Spitalfields, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of bays and ſerges; and Norwich for its excellent

excellent ſtuffs, camblets, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade, in excellent and ingenious hard-ware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco-boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, etwees, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares: it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for the fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame or an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals, and all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Hallifax, Leeds, Wakefield and Richmond, and, above all, Mancheſter; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though it is only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. I might mention Coventry, Nottingham, Leiceſter, Derby, Kendal, and many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for ſome particular commodity, but the detail would become too bulky. I muſt not, however, diſmiſs this head, without obſerving the beautiful porcelane and earthen ware that has of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, particularly thoſe of Wilton and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly exceed in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; and conſequently, is a vaſt ſaving to the nation. Paper, which till very lately, was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom, and is a moſt neceſſary as well as beneficial manufacture. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of ſalt-petre, which was firſt attempted in England by Sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt-India company: the ſucceſs of ſuch an undertaking would be of immenſe benefit, as well as ſecurity to the nation.

After all that has been ſaid on this head, the ſeats of manufactures, and conſequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always follow thoſe places where living is cheap, and taxes are eaſy: for this reaſon, they have been obſerved of late to move towards the northern counties, where proviſions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations which are

opening in many parts of England, will make vaſt alterations as to its internal ſtate.

Many ſenſible but ſpeculative Engliſhmen, daily expreſs their apprehenſions, leſt the weight of taxes and dearneſs of living in England, ſhould enable other nations to ruin the Engliſh trade at foreign markets, by underworking them. This objection is of a long ſtanding, and would have great weight, did not experience prove that it is not founded in fact. An Engliſh workman, it is true, lives much better than a foreigner, but then he will do double, if not triple the work, in the ſame time; and other nations are taxed deeply as well as England.

A ſhort view of the STOCKS, *or public Funds in England, with an hiſtorical account of the Eaſt-India, the Bank, and South-Sea Companies.*

As there are few ſubjects of converſation more general than the value of ſtocks, and hardly any thing ſo little underſtood, nothing can be more uſeful than a ſhort account of them, which we ſhall here give in as clear and conciſe a manner as poſſible; preſenting our readers with the rationale of the ſtocks, and a ſhort hiſtory of the ſeveral companies, deſcribing the nature of their ſeparate funds, the uſes to which they are applied, and the various purpoſes they anſwer, both with reſpect to the government, the companies themſelves, and the community in general.

In order to give a clear idea of the money tranſactions of the ſeveral companies, it is proper we ſhould ſay ſomething of money in general, and particularly of paper money, and the difference between that and the current ſpecie. Money is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſſaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the repreſentative of that ſtandard to ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to anſwer all the purpoſes of gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary to make this repreſentative of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but the credit of that office or company, who delivers it; which credit conſiſts in its always being ready to turn it into ſpecie whenever required. This is exactly the caſe of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the ſame value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is puniſhed with death, as well as coining.

The method of depoſiting money in the Bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no intereſt) is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only ſafer than

money

money in the hands of the owner himself; but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more easy conveyance: since a bank note for a very large sum, may be sent by the post, and to prevent the designs of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and sent at two several times. Or bills, called Bank post-bills, may be had by application at the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent losses by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight; which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the Bank, if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negociated by strangers as common Bank notes are: and whoever considers the hazard, the expence and trouble, there would be in sending large sums of gold and silver to and from distant places, must also consider this as a very singular advantage. Besides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are destroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of such accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars; 1. They are always of the same value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no interest; while stocks are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. India bonds indeed (by some persons, though erroneously, denominated stock) are to be excepted, they being made payable at six months notice, either on the side of the company or of the possessor.

By the word STOCK was originally meant, a particular sum of money contributed to the establishing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the security both of the government and of the public companies is esteemed preferable to that of any private person, as the stocks are negotiable and may be sold at any time, and as the interest is always punctually paid when due, so they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower interest than what might be obtained from lending it to private persons, where there is often some danger of losing both principal and interest.

But as every capital ſtock or fund of a company is raiſed for a particular purpoſe, and limited by parliament to a certain ſum, it neceſſarily follows, that when that fund is compleated, no ſtock can be bought of the company; though ſhares already purchaſed, may be transferred from one perſon to another. This being the caſe, there is frequently a great diſproportion between the original value of the ſhares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than ſellers, a perſon who is indifferent about ſelling, will not part with his ſhare without a conſiderable profit to himſelf; and on the contrary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations may ſerve to give our readers ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice called Stock-jobbing, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell, at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock, againſt which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by raiſing rumours and ſpreading fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell, and conſequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock, and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price the ſtock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100 l. to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000 l. ſtock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this caſe is called the Bull, and the ſeller the Bear.

Beſides theſe, there are another ſet of men, who though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. Theſe indeed are not fictitious, but real buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, by pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, by uſing the forementioned ſet of men as their inſtruments, and other like practices,

tices, are enabled to raiſe or fall the ſtocks one or two per cent. at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government, by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company which produces 5 l. or 6 l. per cent. per ann. muſt be more valuable than an annuity with government ſecurity, that produes no more than 3 l. or 4 l. per cent. per annum; and conſequently ſuch ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than ſuch an annuity. Though it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company producing 5 l. or 6 l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch ſo much money at market as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt-India, the Bank, and South-Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt-India company, as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe the Eaſt-India company takes the lead; and I have already given ſome account of it, as being the capital commercial object in England. The firſt idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has ſince admitted of vaſt alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50 l. ſterling; and its capital only 369,891 l. 5 s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares were doubled, and, conſequently, each became of 100 l. value, and the capital 739,782 l. 10 s. to which capital, if 963,639 l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will be found to be 1,703,402 l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by Sir Joſiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indoſtan, damped the ardour of the public to ſupport it; ſo that

at

at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public ſpirited meaſures of king William by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of vaſt difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vaſt intereſt both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in ſome reſpects defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aroſe, that in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000 l. to the public, without any additional intereſt; for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies. Its excluſive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,200,000 l. was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade; and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 500 l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200 l. a year, and each of the directors 150 l. The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs;

buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of warehouſes, a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-ſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and warehouſe-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, which are attended with a proportionable encreaſe of trade, joined to the diſſentions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late engaged the attention of the legiſlature ſo much, that a reſtriction has been laid for their dividends for a certain time, not to exceed 12 and a half per cent. As to the vaſt fortunes acquired by their governors and officers abroad, the ſtate in which they live, and their other economical regulations, they are foreign to this head.

Other officers of the company are governors and factors abroad, ſome of whom have guards of ſoldiers, and live in all the ſtate of ſovereign princes.

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England; in conſideration of the loan of 1,200,000 l. granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them, to trade in any goods, or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament paſſed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171 l. 10s. It was then alſo enacted, that bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal, and not a real eſtate; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling Bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the Bank within ſeven days; and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days, and that it ſhould be felony, without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the Bank, or any ſealed Bank bill, or any Bank note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch bills or notes.

By another act paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343 l. and they then advanced 400,000 l. more to the government; and in 1714, they advanced another loan of 1,500,000 l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank

Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000 l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000 l. and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in the capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in queſtion; but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with an intereſt of 5 per cent. per annum, for the money ſo omitted to be paid: and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this, the Bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000 l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000 l. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000 l. at 3 per cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000 l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800 l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442 l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the further ſum of 1,000,000 l. into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the malt and land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be iſſued for that purpoſe; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800 l. the intereſt of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to 3 and a half per cent. till the 25th of December 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the ſaid Exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation. The nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary

demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening that ſum they employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them) or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows.

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; wherein the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the Bank pays the ſubſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſuch ſum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the caſe) receive 6 and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500 l. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account.

	£.
The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million — — —	30,000
The Bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance 100.000 l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000 l. more — —	6,500
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is — —	23,500

This is the ſtate of the caſe, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling

willing to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank ſtock may not improperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills of exchange, &c. Beſides which, they are allowed by the government very conſiderable ſums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages, render a ſhare in their ſtock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the Eaſt-India ſtock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when thoſe who have occaſion for their money, may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt-India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers of this company are very numerous.

SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France, in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets inſtead of money, were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaritious men at a diſcount of 40 l. and ſometimes 50 l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321 l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6 l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-ſea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great-Britain, trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fiſhery, &c.

Though this company ſeem formed for the ſake of commerce, it is certain the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, about making any ſettlements on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes; of which this company was deprived upon receiving 100,000 l. in lieu of all claims upon

Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great-Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatue of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling the company to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo empowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common ſeal, on the credit of their capital ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation, on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

The fatal South-Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company, and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000 l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation, when taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South-Sea bubble was projected. The pretended deſign of which was to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhewing the advantages of the deſign, and inviting perſons into it. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared that every 100 l. original ſtock would yield 50 l. per annum: which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100 l. was ſold for upwards of 800 l. This was in the month of July; but before the end

of

of September, it fell to 150 l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. But the conſequences of this infamous ſcheme are too well known. We ſhall paſs over all the other tranſactions of this company in the reign of king George I. as not material to our preſent purpoſe.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103 l. 8 s. 1 d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts, three-fourths of which ſhould be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called, the new South-Sea annuities; and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums allowed for the charge of management, and with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-Sea company. That the accomptant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſonably divide, without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were diſcharged; and that the South-Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3 l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has in his own name and right, 5000 l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000 l. the deputy

deputy 3000 l. and a director 2000 l. in the same stock. In every general court, every member, having in his own name and right, 500 l. in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000 l. two votes; if 3000 l. three votes, and if 5000 l. four votes.

The East-India company, the Bank of England, and the South-Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million-Bank, whose capital is only one million, constituted to purchase the reversion of the long Exchequer orders.

The interest of all the debts owing by the government, is now reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the years 1756, and 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders: but the South-Sea company still continues to divide 4 per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different stocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, so when a person who is not acquainted with transactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of stocks, where Bank stock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a 134½, South-Sea ditto 97½, &c. he is to understand, that 100 l. of those respective stocks sell at such a time for those several sums.

In comparing the prices of the different stocks one with another, it must be remembered, that the interest due on them from the time of the last payment, is taken into the current price, and the seller never receives any separate consideration for it, except in the case of India bonds, where the interest due is calculated to the day of the sale, and paid by the purchaser, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the interest on the different stocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly understood, would lead a person, not well acquainted with them, into considerable mistakes in his computation of their value; some always having a quarter's interest due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a considerable difference in the price, when, in reality, there is none at all. Thus, for instance, old South-Sea annuities sell at present for £. 85 ½, or £. 85 10 s. while new South-Sea annuities fetch only £. 84 ¼, or £ 84 15 s. though each of them produce the same annual sum of 3 per cent. but the old annuities have a quarter's interest more due on them than the new annuities, which amount to 15 s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two causes that will always make one species of annuities sell somewhat lower than another,

though of the ſame real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall capital, and there not being, for that reaſon, ſo many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; becauſe it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular ſpecies of annuity, the capital of which is the ſmalleſt.

A ſtock may likewiſe be affected by the court of Chancery; for if that court ſhould order the money which is under their direction, to be laid out in any particular ſtock, that ſtock, by having more purchaſers, will be raiſed to a higher price than any other of the like value.

By what has been ſaid, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the intereſt of the nation depends on the ſupport of the public funds.—While the annuities, and intereſt for money advanced, is there regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people, (a ſecurity not to be had in other nations) foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be intereſted in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandize, and Great-Britain can never want caſh to carry her ſchemes into execution.

In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is eſtabliſhed on the intereſts of both prince and people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity: for however lovely and engaging honeſty may be in other reſpects, intereſt in money-matters will always obtain confidence; becauſe many people pay great regard to their intereſt, who have but little veneration for virtue.

The AMOUNT of the CAPITALS at the BANK, Threadneedle-ſtreet; SOUTH-SEA, ditto; and INDIA-HOUSE, Leadenhall-ſtreet.				Intereſt per annum.			When due.	When transferred.	Holidays.
BANK STOCK.	£ 10,780,000			£ 539,000			5 April & 10 Oct.	Tueſ. Thurſ. & Frid.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 30
—4 per cent. con. an.	20,240,000			809,600			Ditto	Mon. Tu. Th. & Fr.	Feb. 2, 24.
* 4 per cent. 1763	3,500,000			140,000			Ditto	Wedn. & Satur.	March 25.
* 4 per cent. navy	1,741,527	3	9	69,661	1	9	25 March & 29 Sept.	Ditto	April 23, 25.
* 3½ per cent. 1756	1,500,000			52,500			5 Jan. & 5 July	Tueſ. & Thurſ.	May 1, 29.
—3½ per cent. 1758	4,500,000			157,500			Ditto	Mon. Wed. & Frid.	June 4, 11, 24, 29.
—3 per cent. conſ.	35,127,821	5	1	1,053,834	12	9	Ditto	M.Tu.We.Th.&Fr.	July 25.
—3 per cent. red.	19,201,323	16	4	576,039	14	3	5 April & 10 Oct.	Tu. Wed. Th. & Fr.	Auguſt 12, 24.
— 3 per cent. 1726	1,000,000			30,000			5 Jan. & 5 July	Wed. & Satur.	Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29.
Long ann. for 99 years com. 5 Jan. 1761				248,150			Ditto	Ditto	Oct. 18, 25, 28. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30. De. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28
SOUTH-SEA STOCK.	3,662,784	8	6	128,197	9	1	Ditto	Mon. Wed. & Frid.	
—3 per cent. old an.	12,404,270	2	7	372,128	2		5 April & 10 Oct.	Ditto	MOVEABLE.
—3 per cent. new	8,958,255	2	10	268,747	13	1	5 Jan. & 5 July	Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat.	Shrove Tu. Aſh. Wed
—3 per cent. 1751	2,100,000			63,000			Ditto	Tueſ. & Thurſ.	Good Friday. Eaſt. Mo. Tu. & Wed.
IND. STOCK, 12 *per C.*	3,200,000			384,000			Ditto	Do. & Sat. till 12 o'cl.	Holy Thurſday.
—3 per cent. ann.	3,000,000			90,000			5 April & 10 Oct.	Mon. Wed. & Fri.	Whit. M. T. & Wed.
N. B. Intereſt on India bonds due 31ſt March and 30th of September.	£ 130,915,981	19	1	£ 4,982,458	13		N. B. Dividends paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3 Transfers from 11 to 1 Div. at the So. Sea & Ind. H. from 9 to 12 Transfers from 12 to 1		Saturday after 1 excepted.

☞ Theſe marked with a * were paid off between the years 1765 and 1771.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitution as that of England, ſeems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved his miſtake, for by certain checks, that operate mutually, and which did not fall within his ideas, the Engliſh conſtitution has continued in its full vigour for above 500 years. It muſt, at the ſame time, be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and ſome interruptions, but its principles are the ſame, with thoſe deſcribed by the above-mentioned hiſtorian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern anceſtors of the Engliſh nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany, and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the ſame, as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve him, were diſtributed among them, and the whole was conſidered as the common property which they were to unite in defending againſt all invaders. Freſh adventurers coming over, under ſeparate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales, and thoſe leaders, at laſt, aſſumed the title of kings over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more reſpectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not encreaſe their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief officers, and the people, till, by degrees, ſheriffs, and other civil officers, were appointed. The country was divided into wapentakes, and hundreds, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England, and overſeers were choſen to direct them for the good of the whole. The ſheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters, within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, was added the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itinerant, and other judges, were appointed; but by the earlieſt records, it appears, that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay, and here we have the original of Engliſh juries.

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters, but we are certain that there was no action ſo criminal, as not to be compenſated for by money *. A mulct was impoſed in

* Called by the Saxons GUELT, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

in proportion to the guilt, even if it was the murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it, he purchased his pardon. Those barbarous usages seem to have ceased soon after the Saxons were converted to Christianity, and cases of murder and felony were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, strictly speaking, hereditary, though in fact it came to be rendered so through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preserving the regularity of government. Even estates and honours were not strictly hereditary, till they were made so by William the Conqueror.

That prince new modelled the English constitution. He divided the conquered lands among his followers, as had been agreed before the time of the invasion, in perpetual property. He partitioned out the lands into knight's fees, an indetermined number of which formed a barony, and those baronies were given to the great noblemen, who composed what is called the King's Court, or Court of Peers, from every baron being a peer, or equal to another. In this court all civil as well as military matters, and the proportions of knights and men, which each baron was to raise for the king's service, were settled. Even bishoprics were converted into lay baronies, and were obliged, as others, to furnish their quotas. In other respects, the Conqueror, and the first princes of the Norman line, did all they could to efface from the minds of the people, the remembrance of the Saxon constitution, but the attempt was to no purpose. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown, and after much war and blood-shed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been spilt, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves the disposal of property.

The precise year, when the house of commons was formed, is not known, but we are certain, that it began in the reign of Henry III. though we shall not enter into any disputes about their specific powers. We shall therefore proceed to describe the constitution, as it stands at present.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, by the singular

conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

OF THE KING.] The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland, is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king, or queen; for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is: "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf: but that the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed or limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal ſucceſſion, by its being tranferred from the houſe of Tudor, to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without iſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the other iſſue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen: whoſe eldeſt daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the Firſt, was the lineal deſcendant from that alliance. So that in his perſon, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman conqueſt downward; he being indiſputably the lineal heir of the conqueror. And, what is ſtill more remarkable, in his perſon alſo centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been ſuſpended from the conqueſt till his acceſſion. For Margaret, the ſiſter of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and granddaughter of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, ſuppoſing it not aboliſhed by the conqueſt, reſided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the reſtorer of the Saxon line. But it muſt be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had ſons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the direct lineal deſcendant; and therefore united in his perſon every poſſible claim, by hereditary right, to the Engliſh as well as Scottiſh throne, being the heir both of Egbert, and William the Conqueror.

At the revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates, or repreſentative body of the nation, declared, that the miſconduct of king

king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Proteſtant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception, or preference, to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the Proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being proteſtants: and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from whom the heirs of the crown muſt deſcend *.

The

* A Chronology of Engliſh KINGS, from the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the perſon of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the iſland, the Saxons and Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and ſubdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.		
800	Egbert	Saxon Princes.
838	Ethelwulf	
857	Ethelbald	
860	Ethelbert	
866	Ethelred	
871	Alfred the Great	
901	Edward the Elder	
925	Athelſtan	
941	Edmund	
946	Edred	
955	Edwy	
959	Edgar	
975	Edward the Martyr	
978	Ethelred II.	
1016	Edmund II.	
1017	Canute, king of Denmark	Daniſh.
1035	Harold	
1039	Hardicanute	
1041	Edward the Confeſſor	Saxon.
1065	Harold, Uſurper	
1066	William I.	(Commonly called the Conqueror, from his conquering England) duke of Normandy, a province facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.
1087	William II.	Sons of the Conqueror.
1100	Henry I.	
1135	Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela.	
1154	Henry II.	(Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empreſs Maud, and her ſecond huſband Geoffroy Plantagenet.
1189	Richard I.	Sons of Henry II.
1199	John	
1216	Henry III. ſon of John.	
1272	Edward I. ſon of Henry III.	

The true ground and principle, upon which the revolution proceeded, was an entirely new caſe in politics, which had never before happened in our hiſtory; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeazance of the right of ſucceſſion, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houſes of parliament: it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full aſſembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both houſes came to this reſolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of jeſuits, and other wicked perſons, having violated the fundamental laws; and having

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Began to reign.		
1307	Edward II. ſon of Edward I.	
1327	Edward III. ſon of Edward II.	
1377	Richard II. grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon, the black prince.	
1399	Henry IV. Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, 4th ſon to Edward III.	Houſe of Lancaſter.
1413	Henry V. ſon of Henry IV.	
1422	Henry VI. ſon of Henry V.	
1461	Edward IV. deſcended from Edw. III. by Lionel his 3d ſon	Houſe of York.
1483	Edward V. ſon of Edward IV.	
1483	Richard III. brother of Edward IV.	
1485	Henry VII. (Tudor) ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the Houſe of Lancaſter.	Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII's marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1509	Henry VIII. ſon of Henry VII.	
1547	Edward VI. ſon of Henry VIII.	
1553	Mary, Daughters of Henry VIII.	
1558	Elizabeth, Daughters of Henry VIII.	
1603	James I. Great grandſon of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and firſt of the Stuart family in England.	
1625	Charles I. ſon of James I.	
Uſurpation by commonwealth and Cromwell.		
1649	Charles II. Sons of Charles I.	
1685	James II. Sons of Charles I.	
1688	William III. nephew and ſon-in-law of James II.	
1702	Anne and Mary, Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Proteſtant line of Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his infant ſon (the late pretender) who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next Proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James, at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles, who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the elector palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburg, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament, expreſsly made in favour of his mother.	
1714	George I.	
1727	George II. ſon of George I.	Houſe of Hanover.
1760	George III. grandſon of George II.	

having withdrawn himſelf out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden and unexpected vacancy of the throne, the old line of ſucceſſion: which from the conqueſt had laſted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almoſt 900.

Though in ſome points (owing to the peculiar circumſtances of things and perſons) the revolution was not altogether ſo perfect as might have been wiſhed; yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and underſtood, and the rights of the ſubject more explicitly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any other period of the Engliſh hiſtory. In particular, it is worthy obſervation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wiſdom the wild extreams into which the viſionary theories of ſome zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this miſconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and not to an actual ſubverſion, or total diſſolution of the government. They therefore very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a conſequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive magiſtrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though king James was no longer king. And thus the conſtitution was kept intire; which, upon every ſound principle of government, muſt otherwiſe have fallen to pieces, had ſo principal and conſtituent a part as the royal authority been aboliſhed, or even ſuſpended.

Hence it is eaſy to collect, that the title to the crown is at preſent hereditary, tho' not quite ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common ſtock or anceſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be derived, is alſo different. Formerly the common ſtock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common ſtocks united, and ſo continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inheritance was veſted by the new king and parliament. Formerly the deſcent was abſolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any reſtriction; but now, upon the new ſettlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to ſuch heirs only, of the body of the princeſs Sophia, as are Proteſtant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Proteſtants.

And in this due medium conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of the right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms.

kingdoms. The extremes, between which it ſteers, are each of them equally deſtructive of thoſe ends for which ſocieties were formed, and are kept on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is elected by the people, and may by the expreſs proviſion of the laws be depoſed (if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever productive of tumult, contention, and anarchy. And, on the other hand, divine indefeaſible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited paſſive obedience, is ſurely of all conſtitutions the moſt thoroughly ſlaviſh and dreadful. But when ſuch an hereditary right, as our laws have created and veſted in the royal ſtock, is cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties, which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject; this union will form a conſtitution, in theory the moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and, in all probability, will prove in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtitution, it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath at the coronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops, or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people; who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay*, Will you ſolemnly promiſe and ſwear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The king or queen ſhall ſay*, I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

Archbiſhop or biſhop. Will you to your power cauſe law and juſtice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or queen.* I will.

Archbiſhop or biſhop. Will you to the utmoſt of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the Proteſtant reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? And will you preſerve unto the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the law do or ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen.* All this I promiſe to do.

After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy goſpels, ſhall ſay, The things which I have here before promiſed, I will perform and keep: ſo help me God. *And then ſhall kiſs the book.*"

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcribed by our laws: and we may obſerve, that in the king's part in this original contract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law: to execute judgment in mercy: and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latter of theſe three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Ann. c. 8. two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England: which enact; the former, that every king at his ſucceſſion ſhall take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the Proteſtant religion, and Preſbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that at his coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to preſerve the ſettlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is one of the greateſt monarchs reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it has no bounds (except where it breaks in upon the liberty and property of his ſubjects, as in making new laws, or raiſing new taxes) for he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, fit out fleets, employ them as he thinks proper; grant commiſſions to his officers both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, tho' it hath paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved. He poſſeſſeth the right of chuſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſhold, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, in ſome ſhape, are, as has been obſerved, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this iſland; and have ſubſiſted, in their preſent form, at leaſt 500 years.

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity,

pacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal, (who ſit together with the king, in one houſe) and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis.* For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, tho' not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and 24 biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all antient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the 16 peers, who repreſent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne: and if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives. In a free ſtate, every man, who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived, that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives, which it is impracticable to perform in perſon: repreſentatives, choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scots 45; in all 558. And every member, though choſen by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not barely to advantage his conſtituents, but the common wealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due, unleſs in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and juriſdiction of parliament, ſays Sir Edward Coke, is ſo tranſcendent and abſolute, that it cannot be confined, either for cauſes or perſons, within any bounds. It hath ſovereign and uncontrolable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical, or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that abſolute deſpotic power, which muſt in all governments reſide ſomewhere, is entruſted by the conſtitution of theſe kingdoms. All miſchiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new model the ſucceſſion to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the eſtabliſhed religion of the land; as was done in a variety of inſtances, in the reigns of king Henry VIII. and his three children. It can change

change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves; as was done by the act of union, and the ſeveral ſtatutes for triennial and ſeptennial elections. It can, in ſhort, do every thing that is not naturally impoſſible; and therefore ſome have not ſcrupled to call its power, by a figure rather too bold, the omnipotence of parliament. True it is, that what the parliament doth, no authority upon earth can undo. So that it is a matter moſt eſſential to the liberties of this kingdom, that ſuch members be delegated to this important truſt, as are moſt eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apothegm of the great lord treaſurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament:" and, as Sir Matthew Hale obſerves, this being the higheſt and greateſt court, over which none other can have juriſdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a miſgovernment ſhould any way fall upon it, the ſubjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of remedy.

In order to prevent the miſchiefs that might ariſe, by placing this extenſive authority in hands that are either incapable, or elſe improper, to manage it, it is provided that no one ſhall ſit or vote in either houſe of parliament, unleſs he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member ſhall vote or ſit in either houſe, till he hath, in the preſence of the houſe, taken the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration; and ſubſcribed and repeated the declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, the invocation of ſaints, and the ſacrifice of the maſs. To prevent dangers that may ariſe to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, even though he be naturalized, ſhall be capable of being a member of either houſe of parliament.

Some of the more notorious privileges of the members of either houſe are, privilege of ſpeech, of perſon, of their domeſtics, and of their lands and goods. As to the firſt, privilege of ſpeech, it is declared by the ſtatute of 1 W & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of ſpeech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or queſtioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of ſpeech is particularly demanded of the king in perſon, by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So likewiſe are the other privileges, of perſon, ſervants, lands and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but alſo from legal arreſts, and ſeiſures by proceſs from

from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament *.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the court of king's bench and common-pleas, and such of the barons of the exchequer, as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law; as likewise by the masters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal, which dignities are commonly vested in the same person.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the house, as being his own representative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent; which is usually stiled his protest. Upon particular occasions, however, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from the journals.

The house of commons may be properly stiled the grand inquest of Great Britain, impowered to enquire into all national grievances, in order to see them redressed.

The peculiar laws and customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament.

With regard to taxes: it is the antient indisputable privilege and right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons, is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves. And so reasonably jealous are the commons

* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts, was always considered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generously relinquished their privilege by act of parliament 1770; and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.

mons of this privilege, that herein they will not ſuffer the other houſe to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the leaſt alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money bill. Under this appellation are included all bills, by which money is directed to be raiſed upon the ſubject, for any purpoſe, or in any ſhape whatſoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular diſtrict, as by turnpikes, pariſh rates, and the like.

The method of making laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each houſe the act of the majority binds the whole: and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given: not as at Venice, and many other ſenatorial aſſemblies, privately, or by ballot. This latter method may be ſerviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconſtitutional combinations, but is impoſſible to be practiſed with us, at leaſt in the houſe of commons, where every member's conduct is ſubject to the future cenſure of his conſtituents, and therefore ſhould be openly ſubmitted to their inſpection.

To bring a bill into the houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it is of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition; which muſt be preſented by a member, and uſually ſets forth the grievance deſired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature diſputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the houſe; and then (or, otherwiſe, upon the meer petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the houſe, without any petition. (In the houſe of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alledged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a firſt time, and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſecond time; and after each reading, the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion, whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and, if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropt for that ſeſſion; as it muſt alſo, if oppoſed with ſucceſs in any of the ſubſequent ſtages.

After the ſecond reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either ſelected by the houſe in matters of ſmall importance, or elſe, if the bill is a matter of great, or national conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee

committee of the whole houſe. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member; and, to form it, the ſpeaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman) and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees, the bill is debated clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill entirely new modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the committee have made; and then the houſe reconſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchments ſewed together. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and, if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again opens the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion, whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this is agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and deſire their concurrence; who, attended by ſeveral more, carries it to the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. It there paſſes through the forms, as in the other houſe, (except engroſſing, which is already done) and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it is agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery (or, ſometimes in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe; who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference: but, if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But, when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both

houſes have done with any bill, it always is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. It may be neceſſary here to acquaint the reader, that both in the houſes, and in their committees, the ſlighteſt expreſſion, or moſt minute alteration, does not paſs, till the ſpeaker, or the chairman, puts the queſtion; which, in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no*; and, in the houſe of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills, is a matter of great form. When the king is to paſs bills in perſon, he appears on his throne in the houſe of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of ſtate and heralds. A ſeat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly ſate, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood ſit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a cloſe bench removed a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe ſitting on wool is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways: 1. In perſon. When the king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the ſpeaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom fails to extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majeſty how neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occaſion, that the commons of Great-Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre. The titles of all bills that have paſſed both houſes are read; and the king's anſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman-French: a badge, it muſt be owned, (now the only one remaining) of conqueſt; and which one could wiſh to ſee fall into total oblivion; unleſs it be reſerved as a ſolemn *momento* to remind us that our liber-

ties

ties are mortal, having once been deſtroyed by a foreign force. If the king conſents to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be;" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait come il eſt deſire*, "be it as it is deſired." If the king refuſes his aſſent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s' aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When a money-bill is paſſed, it is carried up and preſented to the king by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is thus expreſſed, *le roy remercie ſes loyal ſubjects, accepte lour benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it ſo to be." In caſe of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt ſtage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the ſubject; *les prelats, ſeigneurs, et commons, en ce preſent parliament aſſemblies, au nom de touts vous autres ſubjects, remercient tres humblement votre majeſte, et prient a Dieu vous donner en ſante bone vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Hen. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners conſiſting of certain peers, named in the letters. And, when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

This ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent thereat by his repreſentatives. However, copies thereof are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

An act of parliament, thus made, is the exerciſe of the higheſt authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind every ſubject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himſelf, if particularly named therein. And it cannot be altered, amended, diſpenſed with, ſuſpended, or repealed, but in the ſame forms, and by the ſame authority of parliament: for it is a maxim in law, that it requires the ſame ſtrength to diſſolve, as to create an obligation.

Such is the parliament of Great-Britain; the ſource and guardian of our liberties and properties, the ſtrong cement which binds the foundation and ſuperſtructure of our government, and the wiſely concerted balance maintaining an equal poiſe, that no one part of the three eſtates overpower or diſtreſs either of the other.

From the above general view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears that no ſecurity for its permanency, which the wit of man can deviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected, that parliaments may become ſo corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over their political exiſtence, as a private perſon does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are ſtill ſuch reſources of liberty in England, that no ſuch fatal effect is now to be apprehended; and though the conſtitution has been even overturned, and ſometimes dangerouſly wounded, yet, its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it. Monſ. Mezeray, the famous hiſtorian, ſaid to a countryman of ours, in the cloſe of the laſt century, "We had once in France the ſame happineſs and the ſame privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by repreſentatives of* OUR OWN *chuſing, therefore our money was not taken from us; but granted by us.* Our kings were then ſubject to the rules of law and reaſon—now, alas! we are miſerable, and all is loſt. Think nothing, Sir, too dear to maintain theſe precious advantages; if ever there ſhould be occaſion, venture your life and eſtate rather then baſely and fooliſhly ſubmit to that abject condition to which you ſee us reduced."—

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and on taking the neceſſary oaths, they become immediately privy-counſellors, during the life of the king that chooſes them; but ſubject to removal at his direction.

The duty of a privy-counſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles: 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, meed, doubt or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt

attempt the contrary. And, laſtly, in general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.'

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, can ſupply the deficiency. It has even been known, that upon great and urgent occaſions, ſuch as that of a famine, they can ſuperſede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not ſitting; but this is conſidered as illegal, and an act of parliament muſt paſs for the pardon and indemnification of thoſe concerned.

Among the privy-counſellors, the two ſecretaries of ſtate are more officially ſo than the others, as they are entruſted with the king's ſignet, and are ſuppoſed to adviſe him in acts of government that may not be proper to be communicated even to a privy-counſellor; ſuch as giving orders for ſecret expeditions, correſpondence with ſpies or other agents, ſecuring traitors, and the like. The ſecretaryſhip of ſtate is now held by two noblemen or gentlemen; formerly the king nominated three, but the office was not then of that conſequence which it is now. Since the acceſſion of the family of Hanover, we have likewiſe known three principal ſecretaries of ſtate; but one of them was ſuppoſed to tranſact the affairs of Scotland, which are now committed to other miniſters. Upon the vaſt increaſe of the Britiſh colonies, a new board of trade was erected, and the firſt commiſſioner acts as ſecretary for the American affairs, but without that title. Till this erection took place, all American diſpatches came firſt to the hands of a principal ſecretary of ſtate, who correſponded with the American governors, and ſent them directions in his majeſty's name. The office itſelf is at preſent divided into a ſouthern and a northern department. The ſouthern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs Cantons, Conſtantinople, and, in ſhort, all the ſtates in the ſouthern parts. The northern comprehends the different ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanſeatic towns.

With regard to the capital acts of government, which were formerly entruſted with the ſecretaries of ſtate, a committee of the privy-council, commonly called a cabinet-council, are chiefly entruſted. This cabinet generally conſiſts of a ſelect number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities; but though its operations are powerful and extenſive, a cabinet-council is not eſſential to the conſtitution of England.

This obſervation naturally leads me to mention the perſon who is ſo well known by the name of the firſt miniſter; a term unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps neceſſary. The conſtitution points out the lord high chancellor as miniſter, but the affairs of his own courts give him ſufficient employment. When the office of firſt lord of the treaſury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the ſame perſon, he is conſidered as firſt miniſter. The truth is, his majeſty may make any of his ſervants his firſt miniſter. But though it is no office, yet there is a reſponſibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a poſt of difficulty and danger. I ſhall now take a ſhort review of the nine great officers of the crown, who by their poſts take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The firſt is the lord high ſteward of England. This is an office ſo great, that it is now exerciſed only occaſionally, that is, at a coronation, or to ſit judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held, for that day only, by ſome high nobleman. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whoſe commiſſion, as high ſteward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned; and he proceeds according to the dictates of equity and reaſon.

The poſt of lord high treaſurer has of late been veſted in a commiſſion, conſiſting of five perſons, who are called lords of the treaſury; but the firſt commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of lord high treaſurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the Exchequer; as alſo the letting of the leaſes of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the kingdom. From this ſhort view of his office, its importance may be eaſily underſtood; as he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands, beſides the diſpoſal of ſo great a number of lucrative places, both in England and America, that the bare catalogue of them would exceed the bounds we allot to a long article.

The lord preſident of the council, was an officer formerly of great power: his duty is to propoſe all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majeſty is not preſent, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the

vaſt

vaſt number of American and Weſt-Indian cauſes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubject by an able preſident.

The office of lord privy ſeal, conſiſts in his putting the king's ſeal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are ſigned by the king, in order to their paſſing the great ſeal. The lord privy ſeal has likewiſe under his cognizance ſeveral other affairs, which do not require the great ſeal. He is to take care that the crown is not impoſed upon in any tranſaction paſſing through his hands; and he is reſponſible if he ſhould apply the privy ſeal to any thing againſt the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the ſitting of parliament; of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, or trials of peers.

The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation. It was formerly a place of the higheſt truſt, as it commanded all the king's forts and garriſons, and took place of all officers in the field.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country, as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory for its diſcharge. In war time, he was judge of army cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaſt variety of ceremonies, the arrangement of which, even to the ſmalleſt trifle, fell within the marſhal's province. To this day, he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, funerals, general-mournings, and the like. He is ſuppoſed to be judge of the Marſhalſea-court; and in thoſe reigns where proclamations had the force of law, he had a cenſorial power in all caſes of uſurping falſe names, deſignations, armorial bearings, and the like; but this power is now diſputed, and reduced to a conformity with the common law. As his grace is diſqualified by his religion from the exerciſe of many parts of his office, ſome nobleman, generally one of his own friends or family, is deputed to act for him; and he wears, as his badge, a gold baton tipped with ebony.

The office of lord high admiral of England is * now, likewise held by commiſſion, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, eſpecially ſince the growth of the Britiſh naval power. The Engliſh admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itſelf. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commiſſion immediately iſſuing from that board; and the members muſt ſign even the death warrants for execution: but it may be eaſily conceived, that as they are removeable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can claſh with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the directions they receive from his majeſty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its proceſſes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of Chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and in his abſence the maſter of the Rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees, the witneſſes being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and conſequently, if a man refuſes to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he ſees reaſon for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court, he, or by his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor

* The laſt Lord High Admiral was George, prince of Denmark, and huſband of queen Anne.

chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs; through his hands paſs all writs for ſummoning the parliament or chuſing of members; commiſſions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, ſo called either from the kings of England ſometimes ſitting there in perſon, or becauſe all matters determinable by common law between the king and his ſubjects, are here tried; except ſuch affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewiſe, a kind of cheque upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and juſtices of the peace. Here preſide four judges, the firſt of whom is ſtiled lord chief juſtice of the King's bench, or, by way of eminence, lord chief juſtice of England, to expreſs the great extent of his juriſdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices, or judges, of the king's bench.

The court of Common Pleas takes cognizance of all pleas debateable between ſubject and ſubject; and in it, beſide all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtiled lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, or common bench; beſide whom there are likewiſe three other judges, or juſtices, of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preſide as judges. They are ſtiled barons, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beſide theſe, there is a fifth, called curſitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in adminiſtring the oath to ſheriffs and their officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe.—But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined.—Beſide the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers.

officers. The lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſh riffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, an high-ſheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Weſtmoreland and Middleſex) by the king; whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of juſtice; to impannel juries, to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial, to ſee the ſentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed. And at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes, and amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the ſheriff, or his under-ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county under forty ſhillings; this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the ſheriff's turn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court, enquiry was made into all criminal offences againſt the common law, where by the ſtatute law there was no reſtraint. This court, however, has been long ſince aboliſhed.

Under the ſheriff are various officers, as the under-ſheriff, clerks, ſtewarts of courts, bailiffs, (in London called ſerjeants) conſtables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the ſheriff, is the juſtice of peace, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county: and to them is entruſted the power of putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to inquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of peace ought to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity, and to be not without ſome knowledge of the law; for as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is ſo intoxicating,

toxicating, without theſe qualifications he will be apt to make miſtakes, and to ſtep beyond his authority, for which he is liable to be called to an account at the court of king's bench.

Each county contains two coroners, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall independent policy of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in all matters civil and criminal; with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all offences that are capital, are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who together make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuſe their own ſheriffs, and all of them have a power of making bye-laws, for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the Engliſh government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the ſame manner: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs. All which, during their mayoralty, or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The Cinque-ports are five havens, that lie on the eaſt part of England towards France, and were endowed with particular privileges by our antient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted. See the table of diviſions and counties.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil, or manor (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet, and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to preſent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron, the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on a deſcent or purchaſe.

A conſtable is a very antient and reſpectable office of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable, and they are to attend the high conſtable upon occaſions. They

They are aſſiſted by another antient officer, called the tything-man, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of a hundred, or ten free burgs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burg conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of a conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant that is directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers, and it has of late been found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſides theſe, there are courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding forty ſhillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any conſtitution provided with ſo many fences, as that of England is, for the ſecurity of perſonal liberty. Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus.

If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned, or acquitted, in a proper court of juſtice.

The rights of individuals are ſo attentively conſidered, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority; he may do this in open court, where the king may be caſt, and be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. He cannot take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs he has, by ſome illegal act, accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, to have forfeited his right to liberty, or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons, on a ſuſpicion of guilt: ſuch as that of an act of rebellion within the kingdom, the legiſlature has thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act; but this never has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national ſafety abſolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon, but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty, by twelve men, who muſt be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his miniſters, to miſrepreſent the caſe

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to the jury, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the pleaſure of their ſovereign. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any ſubject, without trial, and the perſons being firſt chargeable with a capital crime, as treaſons, murder, felony, or ſome other act injurious to ſociety: nor can any ſubject be deprived of his liberty, for the higheſt crime, till ſome proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magiſtrate; and he has then a right to inſiſt upon his being brought, the firſt opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be reſtored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alledged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to a bill or indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. In ſome caſes, the man (who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there is ſufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number *, and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the priſoners whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power: by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Theſe only are the judges, from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is to expect life or death, and upon their integrity and underſtanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting, or condemning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore inveſted with a ſolemn and awful truſt: if he without evidence

ſubmits

* The party may challenge thirty-five in caſe of treaſon.

ſubmits his opinion to that of any of the other jury, or yields in complaiſance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care; if he queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an infamous character; or after the moſt impartial hearing has the leaſt doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accuſed; he will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhmen conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent, whom he wiſhes to be brought in guilty. Were not this the caſe, juries would be uſeleſs; ſo far from being judges themſelves, they would only be the tools of another, whoſe province it is not to guide, but to give a ſanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the judge on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Theſe are the glorious privileges which we enjoy above any other nation upon earth. Juries have always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject, ſays he, let all ways be tried to juſtify him; and if that is not poſſible to be done, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubject may not get too great a cuſtom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In ſhort, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy conſtitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt, as well as the greateſt. When a priſoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are ſuppoſed to be counſel for the priſoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made uſe of

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in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account thereof may be uſeful to foreigners and others, who have not ſeen thoſe proceedings.

The court being met, and the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accuſed, and aſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the priſoner anſwers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he anſwers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confeſſed the fact: for the law of England takes no notice of ſuch confeſſion; and unleſs the witneſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury muſt acquit him, for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the priſoner refuſes to plead, that is, if he will not ſay in court, whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he is by the law of England to be preſſed to death.

When the witneſſes have given in their evidence, and the priſoner has, by himſelf or his counſel, croſs examined them, the judge recites to the jury the ſubſtance of the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and bids them diſcharge their conſcience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of court; and the foreman, for himſelf and the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty*, or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up, till they are unanimouſly agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die during this their confinement, the priſoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar, to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in ſome doubtful caſes, when the verdict is brought in ſpecial, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the priſoner is found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſon he can give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? There is now no benefit of clergy—it is changed to tranſportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction the ſentence of death, after a ſummary account of the trial, is pronounced on the priſoner, in theſe words: *The law*

is, That thou ſhalt return to the place from whence thou cameſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou ſhalt hang by the neck, till thy body be dead, and the Lord have mercy on thy ſoul: whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the execution.

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and diſcharged, and in ſome caſes obtain a copy of their indictment from the court to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

Of PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are eſteemed more merciful, with reſpect to offenders, than thoſe which at preſent ſubſiſt in any other part of the known world; yet the puniſhment of ſuch who at their trial refuſe to plead guilty or not guilty, is here very cruel. In this caſe the priſoner is laid upon his back, and his arms and legs being ſtretched out with cords, and a conſiderable weight laid upon his breaſt, he is allowed only three morſels of barley bread, which is given him the next day without drink, after which he is allowed nothing but foul water till he expires. This, however, is a puniſhment which is ſcarcely inflicted once in an age; but ſome offenders have choſe it to preſerve their eſtates for their children. Thoſe guilty of this crime are not now ſuffered to undergo ſuch a length of torture, but have ſo great a weight placed upon them, that they ſoon expire. In caſe of high treaſon, though the criminal ſtands mute, judgment is given againſt him, as if he had been convicted, and his eſtate is confiſcated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under high treaſon, petty treaſon, and felony. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe,

on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe †.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

Petty treaſon is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. This crime is puniſhed by being drawn in a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till the criminal is dead. Women guilty both of this crime, and of high treaſon, are ſentenced to be burnt alive, but inſtead of ſuffering the full rigour of the law, they are ſtrangled at the ſtake before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging, only * murderers are to be executed ſoon after ſentence is paſſed; and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there are ſome alleviating circumſtances, are ſometimes tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations. And in all ſuch felonies where the benefit of the clergy is allowed, as it is in many, the criminal is burnt in the hand with a hot iron.

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

Manſlaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this caſe, the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley, is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand; unleſs the offender was doing an unlawful act, which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

Shop-lifting, and receiving goods knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with tranſportation to his majeſty's colonies, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

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† This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment; but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

* By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after ſentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

Petty-larceny, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelvepence, is puniſhed by whipping.

Libelling, uſing falſe weights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding on the pillory, or whipping.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking in Weſtminſter-hall, while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The firſt private relation of perſons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of huſband and wife; or, as moſt of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhment therefore, or annulling, of inceſtuous, or other unſcriptural marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.

The firſt legal diſability is a prior marriage, or having another huſband or wife living; in which caſe, beſides the penalties conſequent upon it as a felony, the ſecond marriage is to all intents and purpoſes void: polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Teſtament, and the policy of all prudent ſtates, eſpecially in theſe northern climates. The ſecond legal diſability is want of age. This is ſufficient to avoid all other contracts, on account of the imbecillity of judgment in the parties contracting. Therefore if a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age, marries, this marriage is imperfect; and, when either of them comes to the age of conſent aforeſaid, they may diſagree, and declare the marriage void, without any divorce or ſentence in the ſpiritual court. This is founded on the civil law. But the canon law pays a greater regard to the conſtitution, than the age of the parties: for if they are *habiles ad matrimonium*, it is a good marriage, whatever their age may be. And in our law it is ſo far a marriage, that if at the age of conſent they agree to continue together, they need not be married again. If the huſband be of years of diſcretion, and the wife under twelve, when ſhe comes to years of diſcretion, he may diſagree as well as ſhe may; for in contract, the obligation muſt be mutual; both muſt be bound, or neither; and ſo it is, *vice verſa*, when the wife is of years of diſcretion, and the huſband under.

Another

Another incapacity arises from want of consent of guardians. By the common law, if the parties themselves were of age of consent, there wanted no other concurrence to make the marriage valid: and this was agreeable to the canon law. But by several statutes, penalties of 100l. are laid on every clergyman, who marries a couple either without publication of banns (which may give notice to parents or guardians) or without a licence, to obtain which the consent of parents or guardians must be sworn to. And it has been lately thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns suppose notice) where either of the parties is under twenty-one (not being a widow, or widower, who are supposed free) without the consent of the father, or, if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, shall be absolutely void. A provision is made, as in the civil law, when the mother or guardian is *non compos*, beyond the sea, or unreasonably froward, to dispense with such consent at the discretion of the lord chancellor; but no provision is made, in case the father should labour under any mental, or other incapacity. Much may be, and much has been said, both for and against this innovation upon our ancient laws and constitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandestine marriage of minors, which are often a terrible inconvenience to those private families wherein they happen. On the other hand, restraints upon marriages, especially among the lower class, are evidently detrimental to the public, by hindering the increase of people; and to religion and morality, by encouraging licentiousness and debauchery, among the single of both sexes; and thereby destroying one end of society and government.

A fourth incapacity is want of reason; without a competent share of which, as no other, so neither can the matrimonial contract, be valid.

Lastly, the parties must not only be willing, and able to contract, but actually must contract themselves in due form of law, to make it a good civil marriage. Verbal contracts are now of no force, to compel a future marriage. Neither is any marriage at present valid, that is not celebrated in some parish church, or public chapel, unless by dispensation from the archbishop of Canterbury. It must also be proceeded by publication of banns, or by licence from the spiritual judge. It is held to be also essential to marriage, that it be performed by a person in orders: though in the times of the grand rebellion, all marriages were performed by the justices of the peace; and these marriages were declared valid in the succeeding reign. But, as the law now stands, we may upon the whole collect, that no marriage by the temporal law is void, that is cele-

brated by a perſon in orders,—in a pariſh church, or public chapel (or elſewhere, by diſpenſation) —in purſuance of banns or a licence,—between ſingle perſons,—conſenting,—of ſound mind,—and of the age of twenty-one years;—or of the age of fourteen in male, and twelve in female, with conſent of parents or guardians, or without it, in caſe of widowhood.

There are two kinds of divorce, the one total, the other partial. The total divorce muſt be for ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment, and thoſe exiſting before the marriage; as conſanguinity, affinity, or corporal imbecility. The iſſue of ſuch marriage, as is thus entirely diſſolved, are baſtards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is juſt and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſupervenient cauſe, it becomes improper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live together: as in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this caſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years) which is that allowance, which is made to a woman, for her ſupport, out of the huſband's eſtate; being ſettled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge, on conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and the rank and quality of the parties.

Having thus ſhewn how marriages may be made, or diſſolved, I come now, laſtly, to ſpeak of the legal conſequences of ſuch making, or diſſolution.

By marriage, the huſband and wife are one perſon in law; that is, the very being, or legal exiſtence of the woman, is ſuſpended during the marriage, or at leaſt is incorporated and conſolidated into that of the huſband: under whoſe wing, protection, and *cover*, ſhe performs every thing, and is therefore called in our law French, a *feme-covert*, under the protection and influence of her huſband, her *baron*, or lord; and her condition, during her marriage, is called her *coverture*. Upon this principle, of an union of perſon in huſband and wife, depend almoſt all the legal rights, duties, and diſabilities, that either of them acquire by the marriage. I ſpeak not at preſent of the rights of property, but of ſuch as are merely *perſonal*. For this reaſon a man cannot grant any thing to his wife, or enter into covenant with her; for the grant would be to ſuppoſe her ſeparate exiſtence; and the covenant with her would be only to covenant with himſelf; and therefore it is generally true, that all compacts made between huſband and wife, when ſingle, are voided by the intermarriage. A woman indeed may be attorney for her huſband; for that implies no ſeparation from, but is rather a repreſentation

tion of her lord. And a husband may also bequeath any thing to his wife by will; for that cannot take effect till the coverture is determined by his death. The husband is bound to provide his wife with necessaries by law, as much as himself; and if she contracts debts for them, he is obliged to pay them; but, for any thing, besides necessaries, he is not chargeable. Also if a wife elopes, and lives with another man, the husband is not chargeable even for necessaries: at least, if the person who furnishes them, is sufficiently apprized of her elopement. If the wife be indebted before marriage, the husband is bound afterwards to pay the debt; for he has adopted her and her circumstances together. If the wife be injured in her person or property, she can bring no action for redress without her husband's concurrence, and in his name as well as her own; neither can she be sued, without making the husband a defendant; except when the husband has abjured the realm, or is banished; for then he is dead in law. In criminal prosecutions, it is true, the wife may be indicted, and punished separately; for the union is only a civil union. But, in trials of any sort, they are not allowed to be evidences for, or against, each other; partly because it is impossible their testimony should be indifferent; but principally because of the union of person. But where the offence is directly against the person of the wife, this rule has been usually dispensed with; and, therefore, in case a woman be forcibly taken away, and married, she may be a witness against such her husband, in order to convict him of felony.

In the civil law, the husband and the wife are considered as two distinct persons; and may have separate estates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and, therefore, in our ecclesiastical courts, a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband.

But, though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. And in some felonies, and other inferior crimes, committed by her, through constraint of her husband, the law excuses her: but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable

to entruſt him, with this power of reſtraining her, by domeſtic chaſtiſement, in the ſame moderation that a man is allowed to correct his ſervants or children; for whom the maſter or parent is alſo liable in ſome caſes to anſwer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have ſecurity of the peace againſt her huſband; or, in return, a huſband againſt his wife: yet the lower rank of people, who were always fond of the old common law, ſtill claim and exert their antient privilege; and the courts of law will ſtill permit a huſband to reſtrain a wife of her liberty, in caſe of any groſs miſbehaviour.

Theſe are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may obſerve, that even the diſabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the moſt part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female ſex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's eccleſiaſtical revenue conſiſts in, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing from allowances of meat, drink, and cloathing, due to the king from an abbey or monaſtery, and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; but now, I believe, diſuſed. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt fruits and tenths of benefices. At preſent, ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that thoſe four branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The demeſne lands of the crown. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feodal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His foreſts. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonimous names of aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies; and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great-Britain, in parliament aſſembled: who, when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the *quantum* of that ſupply, uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to conſider of the ways and means of raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. And in this committee every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detrimental to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the houſe) are in general eſteemed to be (as it were) final

and

and concluſive. For, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, on the credit of a bare vote of the houſe of commons, tho' no law be yet paſſed to eſtabliſh it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandize exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The * poſt office, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions.

The clear neat produce of theſe ſeveral branches of the revenue, after all charges of collecting and management paid, amounts annually to about ſeven millions and three quarters ſterling; beſides two millions and a quarter raiſed annually, at an average, by the land and malt tax. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated, is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the intereſt of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this national debt, it muſt be firſt premiſed, that after the revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics; the expences of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germannic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree: inſomuch that it was not thought adviſeable to raiſe all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferable

* From the year 1715 to 1763, the annual amount of franked letters gradually increaſed from 23,000 l. to 170,700 l.

from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. A ſyſtem which ſeems to have had its original in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344: which government then owed about 60,000 l. ſterling: and, being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called metaphorically a mount or bank: the ſhares whereof were transferable like our ſtocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the national debt: for a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deſerve that name. And the example then ſet has been ſo cloſely followed, during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and ſince; that the capital of the national debt (funded and unfunded) amounted, in January 1765, to upward of 145,000,000 l. to pay the intereſt of which, and the charges for management, amounting annually to about four millions and three quarters, the extraordinary revenues juſt now enumerated (excepting only the land-tax and annual malt-tax) are in the firſt place mortgaged, and made perpetual by parliament; but ſtill redeemable by the ſame authority that impoſed them: which, if it at any time can pay off the capital, will aboliſh thoſe taxes which are raiſed to diſcharge the intereſt.

It is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greateſt inconveniencies. For, firſt, the enormous taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life, for the payment of the intereſt of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures; by raiſing the price, as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence, as of the raw material; and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itſelf. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie for the intereſt; or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unreaſonable privileges, in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and induſtrious ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly, and principally, it weakens the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſources which ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt we now pay for our debts would be nearly ſufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could acquire. And if our anceſtors in king William's time had annually paid, ſo long as their exigencies laſted, even a leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their accounts, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to, and ſettled upon, their poſterity in time of peace; and might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

The produce of the ſeveral taxes before-mentioned were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting and blending them together; ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the aggregate fund, and the general fund, ſo called from ſuch union and addition; and the South Sea fund, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants. Whereby the ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes, and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumptions, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them. The ſurpluſſes therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the ſinking fund, becauſe originally deſtined to ſink and lower the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other intire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the ſinking fund. However the neat ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum; particularly in the year ending at Chriſtmas 1764, to about two millions and a quarter. For, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced, (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or be paid their principal) the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt needs be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation; its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent application of the large ſums, now ariſing from this fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and well worthy the ſerious attention of parliament; which

was thereby enabled, in the year 1765, to reduce above two millions ſterling of the public debt.

But, before any part of the aggregate fund (the ſurpluſſes whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the ſinking fund) can be applied to diminiſh the principal of the public debt, it ſtands mortgaged by parliament to raiſe an annual ſum for the maintenance of the king's houſhold and the civil liſt. For this purpoſe, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the exciſe and cuſtoms, the poſt-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown lands, the profits ariſing from courts of juſtice, (which articles include all the hereditary revenues of the crown) and alſo a clear annuity of 120,000l. in money, were ſettled on the king for life, for the ſupport of his majeſty's houſhold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And, as the amount of theſe ſeveral branches was uncertain, (though in the laſt reign they were computed to have ſometimes raiſed almoſt a million) if they did not ariſe annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his preſent majeſty having, ſoon after his acceſſion, ſpontaneouſly ſignified his conſent, that his own hereditary revenues might be ſo diſpoſed of, as might beſt conduce to the utility and ſatisfaction of the public; and having graciouſly accepted the limited ſum of 800,000l. *per annum*, for the ſupport of his civil liſt, (and that alſo charged with three life annuities, to the princeſs of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princeſs Amelia, to the amount of 77,000l.) the ſaid hereditary, and other revenues, are now carried into, and made a part of, the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown of 800,000l. *per annum*. Hereby the revenues themſelves, being put under the ſame care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected than heretofore; and the public is a gainer of upward of 100,000l. *per annum*, by this diſintereſted bounty of his majeſty. The civil liſt, thus liquidated, together with the four millions and three quarters, intereſt of the national debt, and the two millions and a quarter produced from the ſinking fund, make up the ſeven millions and three quarters *per annum*, neat money, which was before ſtated to be the annual produce of our perpetual taxes: beſide the immenſe, though uncertain ſums, ariſing from the annual taxes on land and malt, but which, at an average, may be calculated at more than two millions and a quarter; and which, added to the preceding ſum, make the clear produce of the taxes, excluſive of the charge of collecting, which are raiſed yearly on the people of this country, amount

amount to upward of ten million ſterling; to which may be further added, the ſum of 400,000 l. which the Eaſt India company have agreed to pay to the public for a certain time.

The expences defrayed by the civil liſt, are thoſe that in any ſhape relate to civil government; as the expences of the houſhold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purſe, and other very numerous outgoings; as ſecret ſervice-money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe ſometimes have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament, to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpoſe by the ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 17.

The civil liſt is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected, and diſtributed again, in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it now ſtanding in the ſame place, as the hereditary income did formerly; and, as that has gradually diminiſhed, the parliamentary appointments have encreaſed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF GREAT BRITAIN. } The military ſtate includes the whole of the ſoldiery; or, ſuch perſons as are peculiarly appointed among the reſt of the people, for the ſafe-guard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch, no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws, therefore, and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate, as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war: and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe, who by their military tenures were bound to perform 40 days ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Wincheſter obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of

ſuch

ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace: and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice; but both this and the former proviſion were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſual from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſions of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſet in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. and his children, lord lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. tho' they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth, as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recognize the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia-laws; the general ſcheme of which is to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal landholders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe compellable to march out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times; and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but, when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence; and which the ſtatutes declare, is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom.

But,

But, as the fashion of keeping standing armies has universally prevailed over all Europe of late years (though some of its potentates, being unable themselves to maintain them, are obliged to have resource to richer powers, and receive subsidiary pensions for that purpose) it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great-Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipso facto*, disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament. The land forces * of these king-

* The land forces consist of

2 Troops of horse-guards raised in 1660.—2 Troops of horse-grenadier-guards raised in 1693 and 1702.—1 Royal regiment of horse-guards, ditto 1661.—4 Regiments of horse-guards, ditto 1685 and 1688.—3 Regiments of dragoon-guards, ditto 1685.—14 Regiments of dragoons, including light-horse, raised between 1683 and 1759.—3 Regiments of foot-guards, raised in 1660.—76 Regiments of foot, the first or royal Scots, raised in 1663, the others between 1661 and 1762.—8 Independent companies of invalids.

Daily Pay of each Rank in his Majesty's Land Forces on the *British* Establishment.	Royal Reg. of Horse-guards. F. Pay	Royal Reg. of Horse-guards. Subsist.	Dragoons. F. Pay	Dragoons. Subsist.	Foot Guards. F. Pay	Foot Guards. Subsist.	Foot. F. Pay	Foot. Subsist.
Colonel and Captain — — —	2 1	1 11	1 15	1 6 6	1 19	1 10	1 4	18
Lieutenant Colonel and Captain —	1 9 6	1 2 6	1 4 6	18 6	1 8 6	1 1 6	17	13
Major and Captain — — —	1 7	1 1 6	1 6	15 6	1 4 6	18 6	15	11 6
Captain — — — —	1 1 6	16	15 6	11 6	16 6	12 6	10	7 6
Captain Lieutenant or Lieutenant	15	11 6	9	7	7 10	6	4 8	3 6
Cornet h. gds & dr. Ens. ftg. Ens or 2d Lt ft.	14	11	8	6	5 10	4 6	3 8	3
Chaplain — — —	6 8	5	6 8	5	6 8	5	6 8	5
Adjutant — — — —	5 0	4 6	5	4 6	4	3	4	3
Quarter-Master — — —	8 6	6 6	5 6	4	4	3	4 8	3 6
Surgeon — — —	6	4 6	6	4 6	4	3	4	3
Surgeon's mate — —					3 6	3	3 6	3
Drum Major — — —					1 6	1		
Deputy Marshal — —					1	9		
Serjeant — — —			2 9	2 3	1 10	1 4	1 6	1
Corporal — — —			2 3	1 9	1 2	10	1	8
Drummer — — —		2 6	2 3	1 9	1 2	8	1	8
Trumpeter — — —		2 6						
Private Man — — —		2	1 9	1 5	10	6	8	6
Allowance on the Establishment to Colonel, Do for hautbois, Captain, Agent — per troop or comp.	4	2	2 6	1 2	1 7	6	1 2	6
	4	4	2	1 6				
	2	2	2 4	2 4	1 1	1 1	1	1
			1 2	1 2	6	6	6	6

kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, Minorca, and America; but in time of war, there have been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000. The registered militia in England consists of near 200,000. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and establishes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer and soldier shall excite, or join any mutiny, or, knowing of it, shall not give notice to the commanding officer; or shall desert, or list in any other regiment, or sleep upon his post, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correspondence with a rebel or enemy; or strike or use violence to his superior officer, or shall disobey his lawful command; such offender shall suffer such punishment as a court martial shall inflict, though it extend to death itself.

Officers and soldiers that have been in the king's service, are by several statutes, enacted, at the close of several wars, at liberty to use any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two universities) notwithstanding any statute, custom, or charter to the contrary. And soldiers in actual military service, may make verbal wills, and dispose of their goods, wages, and other personal chattels, without those forms, solemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other cases.

The maritime state is nearly related to the former; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; an army, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty: and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated, even from the earliest ages. To so much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe, as the ground and substruction of all the marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the isle of Oleron, on the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of England. And yet, so vastly inferior were our ancestors in this point, to the present age, that even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boast,

that the royal navy of England then consisted of 33 ships. The present condition of our marine is in great measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statutes, called the navigation acts; whereby the constant increase of English shipping and seamen, was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably necessary. The most beneficial statute for the trade and commerce of these kingdoms, is that navigation-act, the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650, with a narrow partial view: being intended to mortify the sugar islands, which were disaffected to the parliament, and still held out for Charles II. by stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the same time to clip the wings of those our opulent and aspiring neighbours. This prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother country; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms; or in the ships of that European nation, of which the merchandize imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the restoration, the former provisions were continued, by statute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the master, and three fourths of the mariners shall also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, usually amounts to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have amounted to no less than 80,000 men.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the differences of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral; but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is stiled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and a rear-admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Notwithstanding our favourable situation for a maritime power, it was not until the vast armament sent to subdue this nation by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully sensible of its true interest and natural strength, which it has since so happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm that the British navy, during the late war, was able to cope with all the other fleets in Europe. In the course of a few years it entirely vanquished the whole naval power of France, disabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe.

For

For the protection of the British empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into several powerful squadrons, so judiciously stationed, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe, and while some fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Asia and America, others were employed in frustrating the designs of France, and escorting home the riches of the eastern and western worlds.

Many laws have been made for the supply of the royal navy with seamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them, during, and after their service.

1. For their supply. The power of impressing men, for the sea-service, by the king's commission, has been a matter of some dispute, and submitted to with great reluctance; tho' it hath very clearly and learnedly been shewn by Sir Michael Foster, that the practice of impressing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpose, is of very antient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular series of precedents to the present time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty arises from hence, that no statute, or act of parliament, has expressly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very strongly imply it.

Besides this method of impressing (which is only defensible from public necessity, such as an actual rebellion or invasion of the kingdom, to which all private considerations must give way) the principal trading cities, and sometimes the government, offer bounty money to seamen who enter voluntarily into his majesty's service; and every foreign seaman, who, during a war, shall serve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipso facto*.

But as impressing is generally considered as a gross violation of the natural rights of mankind, so has the bounty money, which seldom exceeds 40s. proved ineffectual. The wages of seamen on board of merchantmen, in time of war, is usually 50s. or upwards, per month; on board of the royal navy, they only receive 22 s. They are flattered indeed with the hopes of prize money, which, if divided in a more equal and equitable manner, would produce the happiest effects to this nation. There would then be less occasion for bounty money or pressing; our fleets would be speedily manned, and regularly supplied with experienced and able seamen. Since under Providence, not only the very existence of this nation, its commerce and foreign settlements; but the liberties of Europe, and security of the Protestant religion, solely depend on the strength and success of the British navy, which is the only

mode-

mode of war we ought ever to engage in; it has been matter of ſurprize to every thinking, diſintereſted ſubject of theſe kingdoms, that neither the above-mentioned regulation, nor any other ſatisfactory ſcheme has yet taken place. That to enrich a few ſuperior officers, we ſhould deprive thoſe very men of their rights and liberty, to whoſe valour and intrepidity alone, in the day of public danger, we look for preſervation.

2. The method of ordering ſeamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular diſcipline there, is directed by certain expreſs rules, articles, and orders, firſt enacted by the authority of parliament, ſoon after the reſtoration; but ſince new modelled and altered, after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, to remedy ſome defects which were of fatal conſequence in conducting the preceding war. In theſe articles of the navy, almoſt every poſſible offence is ſet down, and the puniſhment thereof annexed, in which reſpect the ſeamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land ſervice; whoſe articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleaſure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on ſailors, they are pretty much the ſame with thoſe conferred on ſoldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed or wounded, or ſuperannuated, either by county rates, or the royal hoſpital at Greenwich; with regard alſo to the exerciſe of trades, and the power of making teſtaments; and, farther, no ſeaman aboard his majeſty's ſhips can be arreſted for any debt, unleſs the ſame be ſworn to amount to at leaſt 20 pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a ſoldier may be arreſted for a debt which extends to half that value, but not to leſs amount.

I ſhall cloſe this account of the military and maritime ſtrength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea officers and ſailors, are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which anſwers the annual military act, which is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate, to enable him to preſerve the peace, againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer, who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate, and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. The civil ma-

giſtrate, however, is extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, upon any commotion, whatever *.

COINS.]

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* The Royal Navy of GREAT BRITAIN, as it ſtood at the cloſe of the Year 1762.

N. B. Thoſe in *Italics* were taken from the French or Spaniards.

FIRST RATES.	Guns.
Guns.	
100	Britannia
100	Royal George
100	*R. Sovereign*
SECOND RATES.	
90	Blenheim
90	Duke
90	St. George
90	Namur
90	*Neptune*
90	Ocean
90	Prince
90	Princeſs Royal
84	Royal William
90	Sandwich
90	Union
THIRD RATES.	
64	Africa
64	*Alcide*
74	Arrogant
64	Bedford
64	*Belliqueux*
74	Bellona
64	Belleiſle
64	*Bienfaiſant*
70	Buckingham
70	Burford
80	Cambridge
64	Captain
74	Centaur
70	Chicheſter
74	Cornwall
74	Culloden
64	Defiance
66	Devonſhire
70	Dorſetſhire
74	Dragon
74	Dublin
64	Elizabeth
64	Eſſex
74	Fame
80	*Feudroyant*
70	Grafton
64	Hampton-Court
74	Hercules
74	Hero
74	Kent
74	Lenox
74	*Magnanime*
68	Marlborough
74	Mars
64	*Modeſte*
64	Monmouth
64	Naſſau
80	Newark
74	Norfolk
70	Northumberland
70	Orford
64	Pr. Frederick
80	Princeſs Amelia
60	Princeſs Mary
64	Revenge
74	Shrewſbury
70	Somerſet
74	Sterling-Caſtle
74	*Superb*
70	Swiftſure
74	*Temeraire*
70	Temple
74	Terrible
74	Thunderer
74	Torbay
64	*Trident*
74	Valiant
70	Vanguard
74	Warſpight
FOURTH RATES.	
60	Achilles
60	America
60	Anſon
50	Antelope
50	Aſſiſtance
50	Centurion
50	Chatham
50	Cheſter
	Dreadnought
50	Deptford
60	Dunkirk
60	Edgar
50	Falkland
50	Falmouth
60	*Firme*
60	*Florentine*
50	Guernſey
50	Hampſhire
60	Jerſey
60	*Intrepide*
50	*Iſis*
60	Lion
60	Medway
60	Montague
50	Norwich
60	Nottingham
50	*Oriflame*
60	Panther
60	Pembroke
50	Portland
50	Preſton
60	Prince of Orange
60	Rippon
50	Romney
50	Rocheſter
50	Saliſbury
50	Sutherland
60	Weymouth
50	Wincheſter
60	Windſor
60	York
FIFTH RATES.	
32	Adventurer
32	Alarm
32	*Arethuſa*
32	Æolus
32	*Bologne*
32	Boſton
32	*Blonde*
36	Brilliant
32	*Creſcent*
38	*Danae*
32	*Diana*
44	Dover
32	*Emerald*
44	Enterprize
32	*Flora*
44	Goſport
32	Juno
32	Lark
44	Launceſton
30	Looe
44	Lynn
36	*Melampe*
32	Minerva
32	Montreal
32	*Niger*
36	Pallas
44	Penzance
44	Phœnix
44	Prince Edw.
32	Quebec
44	*Rainbow*
36	*Renown*
32	*Repulſe*
32	Richmond
32	Saphire
32	Southampton
32	Stagg
32	Thames
32	*Thetis*
30	Torrington
32	Tweed
36	Venus
32	*Veſtal*
44	Woolwich
SIXTH RATES.	
28	Actæon
28	*Active*
20	Aldborough
24	*Amazon*
28	*Aquilon*
28	Argo
24	Arundel
28	Boreas
28	Cerberus
24	Coventry
20	Deal-Caſtle
24	Dolphin
24	*Echo*
20	Flamborough
24	Fowey
24	Garland
20	Gibraltar
20	Glaſgow
20	Greyhound
24	Hind
24	Kennington
28	Levant
24	Lively
28	Liverpool
28	Lizard
24	Ludlow-Caſtle
28	Maidſtone
24	Mercury
28	Milford
24	Nightingale
24	Portmahon
20	Roſe
24	Rye

COINS.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence, twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound, which is only an imaginary coin. The

Guns.	
24	Rye
20	Scarborough
20	Seaford
20	Seahorſe
28	Shannon
24	Sheerneſs
24	Solebay
20	*Syren*
24	Surprize
28	Tartar
24	*Terpſichore*
28	Trent
28	*Valeur*
28	Unicorn
24	Wager

SLOOPS.

14	Albany
10	Alderney
10	Antigua
12	Badger
16	Baltimore
10	Barbadoes
10	Bonetta
8	Cruzier
18	Cygnet
10	Diligence

Guns.	
14	Diſpatch
10	Druid
14	Eſcorte
16	Favourite
18	Ferret
8	*Flambro's Prize*
8	Fly
14	Fortune
14	Grampus
10	Granado
8	Goree
8	Happy
8	Hazard
14	Hornet
14	Hound
10	Hunter
14	Jamaica
10	King's Fiſher
8	Laurel
6	Lurcher
18	Merlin
16	Mortar
18	Nautilus
8	Peggy
10	Pomona
10	Otter
14	Pelican
14	Porcupine

Guns.	
18	Poſtillion
8	Ranger
	Racehorſe
14	Saltaſh
8	Savage
14	Senegal
14	Sardome
8	Speedwell
10	Spy
14	Swallow
14	Swift
14	Swan
16	Tamer
	Terror
10	Thunder
14	Trial
14	Vulture
8	Waſp
16	Weazle
8	Wolf
10	*Zephir*

BOMB Veſſels.

	Baſiliſk
	Blaſt
	Carcaſs
	Firedrake

Furnace	
Infernal	
Fire-Sh.	no Guns,
Ætna	
Cormorant	
Grampus	
Lightning	
Pluto	
Raven	
Roman Emperor	
Proſerpine	
Salamander	
Strombolo	
Veſuvius	

YACHTS.

Guns.	
10	Dorſet
8	Fubbs
8	Katharine
	Auguſta

STORESHIPS.

20	Crown
24	South Sea Caſtle.

Ships out of Commiſſion and Building.

Rates.	Guns.	Names.
3	74	Albion
3	64	Aſia
4	60	Auguſta
5	44	Angleſea
5	32	Aurora
2	90	*Barfleur*
	Ditto,	a new ſhip
3	80	Boyne
4	50	Briſtol
6	24	Blandford
	90	Blenheim
		Hoſpital-ſhip
3	74	Canada
4	60	Canterbury
3	74	*Courageux*
4	50	Colcheſter
3	74	Defiance
	24	Experiment
	60	Eagle
	64	Edinburgh
	60	Exeter

Rates.	Guns.	Names.
5	44	Eltham
5	44	Expedition
3	80	*Formidable*
4	50	Glouceſter
5	44	Glory
6	28	Guadalupe
5	44	Haſtings
5	44	Hector
5	30	Jaſon
2	90	London
5	44	Mary Galley
		Martin Sloop
		Mary Yacht
3	74	Monarch
4	50	Nonſuch
3	80	Pr. Carolina
4	60	Pr. Louiſa
4	60	Plymouth
5	44	Poole
1	90	Queen
1	100	Royal Anne

Rates.	Guns.	Names.
3	84	Ramillies
3	64	Royal Oak
4	60	Rupert
4	50	Ruby
		R. Charlotte Yacht
3	64	Suffolk
4	60	St. Alban's
6	24	Sphinx
3	74	Triumph
	28	Vengeance
	10	Viper
1	100	Victory
		Vulture Sloop
4		Warwick
5		Winchelſea
4	60	Worceſter
		William and Mary Yacht
3	64	Yarmouth

The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, halves, and quarters: the ſilver, of crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, ſixpences, groats, and even down to a ſilver penny; and the copper money, only of half-pence, and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinſic value of the ſilver is very near equal, and in ſome coins, crown pieces particularly, ſuperior to the nominal, the coinage of ſilver money is a matter of great conſequence; and yet the preſent ſtate of the national currency, ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſixpences, the intrinſic value of the latter being many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public loſing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but they are not generally current, nor is any ſilver coin that is lower than ſixpence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The title of the king of England, is, By the Grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England was formerly, his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put

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Complement of Men, and Weight of Metal, in the Royal Navy.

Ships of three Decks.					Guns.	Men.	Metal.		
Guns.	Men.	Metal.			60	420	24	12	6
100	850	42	24	12 6	60	400	24	9	6
90	750	32	18	12 6	50	350	24	12	6
80	600	32	18	9 6	50	300	18	9	6
Ships of two Decks.					44 40	250	18	9	6
80 74	650	32	18	9	Frigates of one Deck.				
70	520	32	18	9	36	240	12	6	
68	Ditto				32	220	12	6	
66	Ditto				28	200	9	4	
64	480	24	12	6	20	160	9	4	

When a ſhip of war becomes old or unfit for ſervice, the ſame name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a ſingle beam of the old ſhip remains, the name cannot be changed unleſs by act of parliament.

The Pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate.	FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to Flags.	per day.
Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet	—	5 0 0
An Admiral — — — —	—	3 10 0
Vice Admiral — — —	—	2 10 0
Rear Admiral —— —— ——	——	1 15 0
Firſt Captain to the Commander in Chief ——	—	1 15 0
Second ditto, and Captain to other Admirals	——	1 0 0
—to V. Admirals } if firſt or ſecond Rates, to }	——	0 16 0
—to R. Admirals } have the pay of ſuch Rates }	——	0 13 6

put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of Majeſty, but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed, till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great-Britain, anno 1714, the royal atchievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the firſt grand quarter, *Mars, three lions paſſant guardant, in pale, Sol*, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure flowered and counterflowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The ſecond quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The third, the enſigns of Ireland; which is, *Jupiter,*

OFFICERS.	First.		Second.		Third.		Fourth.		Fifth.		Sixth.	
	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.
Captain *per day*	1	0 0	0	16 0	0	13 6	0	10 0	0	8 0	0	8 0
Lieutenant *per day*	0	5 0	0	5 0	0	4 0	0	4 0	0	4 0	0	4 0
Maſter *per month*	9	2 0	8	8 0	7	6 0	6	12 0	6	2 8	5	0 0
2d maſter & pilots of yachts each 3*l* 10*s*												
Maſter's mate	3	6 0	3	0 0	2	16 2	2	7 10	2	2 0	2	2 0
Midſhipman	2	5 0	2	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9	1	10 0	1	10 0
Schoolmaſter	0	0 0	0	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9	1	10 0		
Captain's clerk	2	5 0	2	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9				
Quarter-maſter	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Quar. maſter's mate	1	10 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	5 0
Boatſwain	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Boatſwain's mate	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Yeoman of the ſheets	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	6 0
Coxſwain	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	6 0
Maſter ſail maker	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	14 0	1	12 0	1	10 0
Sail maker's mate	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	8 0
Sail maker's crew	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0
* Gunner	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Gunner's mate	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Yeo. of powder room	1	15 0	1	15 0	1	12 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	6 0
Quarter gunner *	1	6 0	1	6 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0
Armourer	2	5 0	2	0 0	1	17 6	1	13 9	1	10 0	1	10 0
Armourer's mate	1	10 0	1	10 0	1	8 0	1	8 0	1	6 0	1	5 0
Gunſmith	1	5 0	1	5 0								
Carpenter	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Carpenter's mate	2	0 0	2	0 0	1	16 0	1	14 0	1	12 0	1	10 0
Carpenter's crew	1	6 0	1	6 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0
Purſer —	4	0 0	3	10 0	3	0 0	2	10 0	2	5 0	2	0 0
Steward —	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	3 4	1	0 8	1	0 0
Steward's mate	1	0 8	1	0 8	1	0 8	1	0 8				
Cook —	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	5 0	1	4 0
Surgeon †	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0	5	0 0
Surgeon's firſt mate	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0	3	0 0
—— ſecond mate	2	10 0	2	10 0	2	10 0	2	10 0	2	10 0		
—— third mate	2	0 0	2	0 0	2	0 0						
—— fourth and fifth	1	10 0	1	10 0	1	10 0						
Chaplain ‡	0	19 0	0	19 0	0	19 0	0	19 0				

* *One to every four guns.* † *Beſides 2d. a month from each man.*

‡ *Beſides 4d. a month from each man.*

an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna. And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions paſſant guardant, Sol,* for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, *Sol, ſcnée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter,* having antient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horſe currant Luna ente* (or grafted) *in baſe*; and, *in a ſhield ſurtout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particular badge or cognizance: ſometimes a white hart, ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes, and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter; many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contra-diſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very ſignificant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit.* None ſhall ſafely provoke me.

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon, are, Prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the garter, the moſt honourable of any in the world, was inſtituted by Edward III. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always the king or queen of England, of 25 companions, called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, ſuppoſed to be the tutelar ſaint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, ſuſpended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but now croſſes their bodies from the ſhoulder. The garter, however, which is buckled under the left knee, gives the name to the order, and on it was embroidered the words, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe.* Evil to him who evil thinks. Authors are divided as to the original of that motto, but it certainly alluded to the bad faith of the French king John, Edward's contemporary. This order is ſo reſpectable, that it has a prelate, who is the biſhop of Wincheſter, and a chancellor, who is the biſhop of Saliſbury, for the time being. It has likewiſe a regiſter, who is dean of Windſor, and a principal king at arms, called garter, whoſe office is to marſhal

and

and manage the ſolemnities at the inſtallation, and feaſts of the knights. The place of inſtallation is Edward III.'s chapel, at Windſor, on which occaſion the knights appear in magnificent robes, appropriated to their order, and in their collars of SS.

Knights of the Bath, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to be inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399, but the order ſeems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other ſolemn occaſions, and they wear a ſcarlet ribband hanging from the left ſhoulder, with an enamelled medal of three crowns, and the motto, *Tria juncta in unum.* Three joined in one. This order being diſcontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 17th of June, 1725, when 18 noblemen, and as many commoners of the firſt rank, were inſtalled knights of the order, with great ceremony, at Weſtminſter, where the place of inſtallment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are ſplendid and ſhewy, and the number of the knights is undetermined. The biſhop of Rocheſter is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewiſe a regiſter and other officers.

The order of the Thiſtle, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that kingdom.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarce be ſaid to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counſellors, there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland: but, at preſent, the number of theſe knights amount to 700.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback, a rank of no mean eſtimation in antient armies, and entitling the party himſelf to the appellation of Sir. In the common laws they are called milites or ſoldiers, and they are made by the king laying a ſword upon their ſhoulders, and deſiring them to riſe by the title of Sir. It is a mark of perſonal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not deſcend to poſterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in Eng-

land, such as those of bannerets, batchelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now disused.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the original of the word esquire, which formerly signified a person bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at present applied promiscuously to any man, who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade, and even a tradesman, if he is a justice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, so late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck, a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of silver spurs. Gower, the poet, appears from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an esquire by creation. Serjeants-at-law, and other serjeants belonging to the king's household, justices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law and physic, take place of other esquires, and it is remarkable, that all the sons of dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than esquires, though commonly designed by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, tho' now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all English honour, for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

History.] It is generally agreed, that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that settled on the opposite shore: a supposition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

In the account I have given of the laws and constitution, may be found great part of the history of England, which I shall not here repeat, but confine myself to the different gradations of events, in a chronological order, connected with the improvement of arts, sciences, commerce, and manufactures, at their proper periods, and that in a manner suitable to the proposed brevity of this work.

When Julius Cæsar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Christ, meditated a conquest of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæsar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vast difficulties, and attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary, and other authors, as well as Cæsar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indecisive;

decisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæsar's descent, were governed, in time of war, by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for some time.

In their manner of life, as described by Cæsar, and the best authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly sowed corn, though, perhaps, they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their cloathing was skins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots beyond credibility, and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture, or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great-Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicia, though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicia being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South-Britain, carried his arms, as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, northwards, into Caledonia, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the

time

time the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls I have so often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems, however, to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies abroad, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants, when disciplined. That this was the case, appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; but it is certain, that under them the South Britons became the most abject slaves, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against the tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no struggle they made, in later times, for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that presented themselves. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the southern Britons retired northwards) and they appeared to have been in no pain about the southern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire, with infinite numbers, fury, and danger to Rome itself *, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and center of the empire. As the Roman forces decreased in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always opposed the progress of the Romans in this island, advanced the more boldly into the southern parts, carrying terror and desolation over the whole country. The effeminated Britons were so habituated to slavery, and accustomed to have recourse to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored the return of the Romans, who as often drove back the invaders to their mountains and antient limits beyond the walls. But these enterprises served only to protract the miseries of the Britons; and the Romans, now reduced to extremities

* See the Introduction.

mities at home, and fatigued with these distant expeditions, acquainted the Britons, that they must no longer look to them for protection, exhorted them to arm in their own defence; and, that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch towers; and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain, about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Cæsar, 500 years.

The Scots and Picts, finding the whole island finally deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a rage and fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The poor Britons, like a helpless family, deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record) which was addressed in these words: *To Aetius, thrice consul: The groans of the Britons*; and told them, after other lamentable complaints, *That the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of perishing by the sword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general, of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief: and we have from Gildas, who was himself a Briton (and describes the degeneracy of his countrymen in lamentable strains) but very dark confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, who struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia, and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts; and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time, Hengist and Horsa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of near 150 years, they subdued,

or drove into Wales, where their language and deſcendants ſtill remain.

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we know but little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who ſeems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions, indeed, a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected hiſtory. We can, therefore, only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieſſin, whoſe works are ſaid to be extant, with others of leſs note. All we know upon the whole is, that after repeated bloody wars, in which the Britons were ſometimes the enemies, and ſometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became maſters of all England, to the ſouth of Adrian's, or rather, Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts ſeem to have been maſters of all the territory to the north of that, though they ſuffered the Britons, who had been driven northwards, to be governed by their own tributary kings; an intermixture that has created great doubts and confuſions in hiſtory, which I ſhall not here pretend to unravel.

I have already given a ſketch of the conſtitution and government which the Saxons imported into England, and which form by far the moſt valuable part of their antient hiſtory.

We have no account of their converſion to Chriſtianity but from Popiſh writers, who generally endeavour to magnify the merits of their ſuperiors. According to them, Ethelbert, king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being deſcended from Hengiſt, married the king of France's daughter, and ſhe being a Chriſtian, Pope Gregory the Great ſeized that opportunity to enforce the converſion of her huſband to Chriſtianity, or rather to Popery. For that purpoſe, about the year 596, he ſent over to England the famous Auſtin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people; and alſo Sebert, king of the Eaſt Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then, by his maſter's order, attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Eaſter; but finding a ſtout reſiſtance on the part of the biſhops and clergy, he perſuaded his Chriſtian converts to maſſacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 prieſts and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a ſtate of ſlavery, which ſome think gave riſe to the antient villenage in England. Auſtin is accounted the firſt archbiſhop

archbiſhop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did ſoon after.

It does not fall within my deſign to relate the ſeparate hiſtory of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is ſufficient to ſay, that the pope, in Auſtin's time, ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was, that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monks; and as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days; no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the Weſt Saxons, though in other reſpects he was a wiſe and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings to the ſee of Rome, was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, whom I have already mentioned, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, commonly choſe one who was to be the head of their political confederacy, for regulating their concerns, but without any juriſdiction in the dominions of others. The clergy, we may eaſily ſuppoſe, had great influence on thoſe occaſions; and the hiſtory of the Saxon heptarchy is little more than that of crimes, treaſons, and murders, committed by the inſtigations of prieſts and monks. Even their criminal law, as I have already inferred, admitted of a pecuniary compenſation for murder, and regicide itſelf.

Under all thoſe diſadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in compariſon of the nations on the continent; becauſe they were free from the Saracens, or ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt, upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and, if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles, quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000 l. ſterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable Bede then compoſed his church hiſtory of Britain. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. An architecture, ſuch as it was, with

ſtone

ſtone and glaſs working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. It muſt, however, be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemaigne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany; and I have, in a former part of this work, mentioned the commercial treaty between him and Offa, king of Mercia, to whom he ſent in a preſent, a Hungarian ſword, a belt, and two ſilken veſts. Egbert had been obliged, by ſtate jealouſies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the Weſt Saxons. Egbert acquired at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and ſoon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own perſon, but without ſubduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-lond, or England; but there is reaſon to believe that ſome part of England continued ſtill to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid, perhaps, a ſmall tribute to Egbert. His proſperity excited the envy of the northern nations, who, under the name of Danes, then infeſted the ſeas, and were no ſtrangers to the coaſts of England; for about the year 832 they made deſcents upon Kent and Dorſetſhire, where they defeated Egbert in perſon, and carried off abundance of booty to their ſhips. About two years after they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Corniſh Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time England had become a ſcene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwolf, after ſome time bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) are ſo prodigious, that they ſhew his brain to have been touched by his devotion.

Upon

Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead) Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſts, and the fineſt counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven battles with the Danes, with various ſucceſs, and when defeated, he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time, reduced to an uncommon ſtate of miſery, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cowherd. He ſtill, however, kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection; ſo that he is thought to have been the moſt powerful monarch that before his time ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raiſing a maritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: He divided England into counties, hundreds and tythings; or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into deſuetude by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himſelf not only a ſcholar, but an author, and he tells us himſelf, that upon his acceſſion to the throne he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick buildings to general uſe in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his ſubjects for many years after his death were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in Eaſt-India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Other, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the king, in his memorial printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed "along the Norway coaſt, ſo far north as commonly the

"whale

"whale hunters use to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles with those barbarians. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up on public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly dignified with the epithet of the Great. I have been the more diffuse on the history of Alfred's reign, as it is the most glorious of any in the English annals, though it did not extend to foreign conquests.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince was such an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages, on his own account, to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a thane, or nobleman of the first rank. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tine. He was succeeded, in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The English nation, at that time, by the help of priests, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest part of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general massacre of them by the English, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind, however, were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they served only to enrage the Danish king,

Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two ſons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, facing the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of England, at that time governed by its own princes, ſtiled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the Great, whom I have already mentioned, but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vaſt army, and obliged Edmund Ironſide, Ethelred's ſon, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being aſſaſſinated, Canute ſucceeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his ſon, Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable, and his ſucceſſor, Hardicanute, was ſo degenerate a prince that the Daniſh royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confeſſor, mounted it, though Edgar Etheling, by being deſcended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Edward the Confeſſor was a ſoft, good-natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and exceſſively fond of the Normans, with whom he had reſided. He was governed by his miniſter, earl Godwin, and his ſons, the eldeſt of whom was Harold. He durſt not reſent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment; and perceiving his kinſman Edgar Etheling to be of a ſoft diſpoſition, neither he nor the Engliſh paid much regard to Etheling's hereditary right; ſo that the Confeſſor, as is ſaid, deviſed the ſucceſſion of his crown upon his death to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain, that upon the death of the Confeſſor, in the year 1066, Harold, ſon to Godwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a baſtard, was then in the unrivalled poſſeſſion of that great dutchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to the crown of England. For that purpoſe he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vaſſals, to join him, and by way of anticipation, he parcelled out the territory of England to each in proportion to the number of men he brought into the field, making it thereby their intereſt to aſſiſt him effectually. By theſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and moſt regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarraſſed with freſh invaſions from the Danes, William landed in England without oppoſition. Harold returning from the north, encountered William at Haſtings in Suſſex, with a ſuperior army, but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

I cannot find any great improvements, either in arts or arms, which the Saxons had made in England ſince the firſt invaſion of the Danes. Thoſe barbarians ſeem to have carried off with them almoſt all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons, for I perceive that Alfred the Great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100 l. each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money and bullion they had carried off; for we are told that Harold, in his laſt victory over the Danes, regained as much treaſure as twelve luſty men could carry off. We have, indeed, very particular accounts of the value of proviſions and manufactures in thoſe days; a palfrey coſt 10 s. an acre of land (according to biſhop Fleetwood in his Chronicon Pretioſum) 1 s. and a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100 s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard of money, though many ingenious treatiſes have been written on that head. A ſheep was eſtimated at 1 s. an ox was computed at 6 s. a cow at 4 s. a man at 3 l. The board wages of a child, the firſt year, was 8 s. The tenants of Shireburne were obliged at their choice to pay either 6 d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in thoſe times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can ſay little, but that they were in general a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unſkilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to ſubmiſſion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and diſorder. Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military courage, which yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the Norman hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their own country, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the people in a ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad the rudiments of ſcience and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated ſtate might be owing to the clergy, who always diſcouraged manufactures.

We are, however, to diſtinguiſh between the ſecular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magiſtrates. The latter depended upon the ſee of Rome,

Rome, and directed the consciences of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody set. A great deal of the Saxon barbarism was likewise owing to their continual intercourse with the continent: and the Danish invasions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidst all those defects, public and personal liberty were well understood and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them, at this day, the most valuable privileges of English subjects.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day; and William, with very little further difficulty, took possession of the throne, and partly new modelled the whole constitution of England in the manner I have already described, by converting all the lands into knights fees *, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, which were held of the Norman and other great persons who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave, for instance, to one of his barons, the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independant of the crown: and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Etheling, and his sister, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms and formed conspiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm, king of Scotland, who married Etheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons, whom he obliged to put out their candles and fires every evening at eight o'clock, upon the ringing of a bell, called the *courfeu*. He introduced Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; and bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution.

He caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be compleated, (for it was begun in Edward

* Four hides of land made one knight's-fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's-fee: and when Doomsday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

the Confeſſor's time) and an account to be taken of the villains, ſlaves, and live ſtock upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king was diſturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable atchievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in antient or modern hiſtory. William ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour, and, with incredible celerity, tranſporting a brave Engliſh army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, the ſixty-firſt of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The above are the moſt material tranſactions of William's reign; and it may be further obſerved, that by the Norman conqueſt, England not only loſt the true line of her antient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conqueſt, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans, by the conqueſt of England, gained much of the Engliſh lands and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of naval power, and multitude of ſhips, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourſe between England and the continent, gave us an increaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared ſoon afterwards. England, by the conqueſt, gained likewiſe a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the great naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. But the dominion of the narrow ſeas ſeems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to thoſe who poſſeſs the banks or coaſts on both ſides;

and

and ſo to have ſtrengthened the former title, by ſo long a coaſt as that of Normandy on one ſide, and of England on the other ſide of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago loſt all our poſſeſſions in France, we continue to defend and maintain by the bravery of our ſeamen, and the ſuperior ſtrength of our navy to any other power.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England was diſputed between the Conqueror's ſons Robert and William, (commonly called Rufus) and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have, therefore, been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and conſequently was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious people. About this time the cruſades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Etheling and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter, but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Foreſt, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age. He is chiefly accuſed of rapaciouſneſs and oppreſſion; but the circumſtances of his reign had great demands for money, which he had no other means of raiſing but from a luxurious, over-grown clergy, who had engroſſed all the riches of the kingdom.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall as it now ſtands, and added ſeveral works to the Tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall and ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea, which overflowed great part of earl Godwin's eſtate in Kent, and formed thoſe ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed the throne, firſt by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Wincheſter; and, ſecondly, by a charter, in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings: thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the antient Saxon line. His reign in a great meaſure reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſtate, and they formed as it were a ſeparate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulſions in England. Henry, partly by

force, and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and dutchy of Normandy; and, with a moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France; and before his death he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, in the ſeventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed, and ſeized by Stephen, earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, that he might hold his crown dependent as it were upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland, and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party before her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, ſhe impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. Being now maſters of the ſoil of England, they forgot the principles of their Normannic conſtitution, becauſe it rendered them dependent upon the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been taken priſoner likewiſe, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had, in fact, excluded him from the government, by building 1100 caſtles (though they owed all their rights to the king) where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal ſubjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough adviſed to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his ſon Euſtace heir apparent to the kingdom; and exaſperated

exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was ſon to the empreſs; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay ariſtocracy, propoſed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. Tho' this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the Engliſh, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with raptures of joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne without a rival in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. It is true, he owed his crown to the arms and valour of his grand uncle, David king of Scotland, and the virtues and wiſdom of the earl of Glouceſter; but Henry, as he grew up, diſcovered amazing abilities for government, having performed, in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the moſt experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered by the privileges granted them in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a bondman or ſervant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices the inhabitants had done to his mother and himſelf; by diſcharging them from every burden, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of ſuch town; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vaſt acceſſion of power to the crown, becauſe the crown alone could ſupport the boroughs againſt their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown lands by Stephen, on pretence of his being an uſurper. He demoliſhed the rebellious caſtles that had been built; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and diſorders, occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all

over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not atteſted by the moſt unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the Engliſh church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his offices, and ſtill more ſo by his popularity, ariſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal, cool and politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted; which, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh ſee over the Engliſh clergy. Becket finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream, ſigned thoſe conſtitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the moſt determined ſpirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the ſee of Rome was at the ſame time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy who were on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the ſubjects abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſwelled his pride, and encreaſed his inſolence, till both became inſupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the firſt ſubject of his own dominions, he was heard to ſay, in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, Hugh Norvil, William Tracy, Hugh Brito, and Richard Fitzwiſe; and, without acquainting Henry of their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury. Henry was in no condition to ſecond the blind obedience of his knights; and the public reſentment roſe ſo high, on the ſuppoſition that he was privy to the murder, that he ſubmitted to be ſcourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in conſequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually reſumed their moſt valuable poſſeſſions in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken priſoner, and forced to pay for his ranſom 100,000 l. As the money and coins of Scotland

land were at that time of the ſame intrinſic value with thoſe of England, and as one half of the ranſom was paid in ready money, and the other at a time appointed, it has been obſerved by biſhop Nicholſon, and other very accurate authors, that, conſidering the vaſt difficulties which England, in the next reign, had to pay the ranſom of king Richard, Scotland muſt have then poſſeſſed more ready money than England, a fact, which tho' undoubted, is not eaſily accounted for upon any hiſtorical ſyſtem hitherto formed.

Henry likewiſe diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of Ireland, which I ſhall have occaſion to mention when I treat of that iſland; and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heireſs of Guienne and Poictou, he became almoſt as powerful as the French king himſelf in his own dominions, and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom. Henry, however, in his old age was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleaſure, and embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Roſamond, which were reſented by his queen Eleanor, by her ſeducing her ſons, Henry, (whom his father had unadviſedly cauſed to be crowned in his own life-time) Richard and John, into repeated rebellions, which at laſt broke the old man's ſpirit, and he died obſcurely at Chinou, in France, in the year 1189, and 58th of his age. The ſum he left in ready money, at his death, has, perhaps, been exaggerated, but the moſt moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000 l. of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were eſtabliſhed all over England, by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Thoſe corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of ſilk, ſeem ſtill to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the ſilk coronation robes, made uſe of by young Henry and his queen, coſt 87 l. 10 s. 4 d. in the ſheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Madox; a vaſt ſum in thoſe days. Henry introduced the uſe of glaſs in windows into England, and ſtone arches in building. Malmſbury, and other hiſtorians who lived under him, are remarkable for their Latin ſtile, which in ſome places is both pure and elegant.

In this reign, and in thoſe barbarous ages, it was a cuſtom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the ſons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themſelves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houſes, and plunder them, to rob and murder paſſengers, and to commit with impunity all ſorts of diſorders.

Henry ſo far aboliſhed the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeiting ſhips, which had been wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or animal were alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and

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goods were reſtored to the owners. This prince was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the moveable or perſonal eſtates of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy wars made them ſubmit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became, in following reigns, the uſual method of ſupplying the neceſſities of the crown. It was a uſual practice of the kings of England to repeat the ceremony of their coronation thrice a year, on aſſembling the ſtates at the three great feſtivals. Henry, after the firſt years of his reign, never renewed this ceremony, which was found to be very expenſive and very uſeleſs. None of his ſucceſſors ever revived it. Since we are here collecting ſome detached inſtances, which ſhow the genius of theſe ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger, archbiſhop of York, and Richard, archbiſhop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when eccleſiaſtics could proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's legate having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London; and as both the archbiſhops pretended to ſit on his right hand, this queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger in the preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, was the third, but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they perſuaded him to make a moſt magnificent ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour that give countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin, emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherouſly ſurprized by the duke of Auſtria; who, in 1193, ſent him priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 marks, about 300,000 l. of our preſent money. According to contemporary authors, the raiſing of this ranſom proved to be a matter of ſo much difficulty, that all the church plate was melted down, and a tax was laid on all perſons, both eccleſiaſtical and ſecular, of one fourth part of their income, for one year; and twenty ſhillings on every knight's-fee; alſo one year's wool borrowed of the Ciſtercians, beſides money raiſed upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and 2000 marks, which were furniſhed by William king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him

him before his departure. Though all thoſe ſums are well authenticated, yet it is not eaſy to reconcile them with certain other money tranſactions of this reign, but by ſuppoſing that Richard carried off with him, and expended abroad, all the viſible ſpecie in the kingdom; and that the people had reſerved vaſt hoards, which they afterwards produced, when commerce took a briſker turn.

Upon Richard's return from his captivity, he held a parliament at Nottingham; whither William king of Scotland came, and demanded the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and Lancaſter, as his predeceſſors had enjoyed the ſame. Richard put him off for the preſent with fair words, yet by advice of his council he granted William, by charter, the following honours and benefits for him and his ſucceſſors, viz. "That whenever a king of Scotland was to be ſummoned to the court of England, to do homage for the lands he held in England, he ſhould be, at the river Tweed, received by the biſhop of Durham, and the ſheriff of Northumberland, and they ſhould conduct him to the river Tees, where the archbiſhop and ſheriff of York ſhould receive him; and ſo in like ſort the biſhop, and ſheriffs of the other ſhires, till he arrived at court. On his journey he had 100 ſhillings (15 l. of our money) per day, allowed him for charges. At court thirty ſhillings per day; twelve waſtels, and twelve ſimnels of the king's, (two ſorts of fine bread in uſe then) four quarts of the king's beſt wine; ſix quarts of ordinary wine; two pound weight of pepper; and four pound weight of cinnamon: four wax lights: forty great long perches of the king's beſt candles; and twenty-four of the ordinary ones. And on his return he was to be conducted as before, with the ſame allowances."

Whilſt the Scottiſh kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their intereſt, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the ſaid homage; but when they were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid no more homage.

Woollen broad-cloths were made in England at this time. An ox ſold for three ſhillings, which anſwers to nine ſhillings of our money, and a ſheep at four pence, or one ſhilling. Richard, upon his return, found his dominions in great diſorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he however pardoned; and by the invaſions of the French, whom he repelled, but was ſlain in beſieging the caſtle of Chalons, in the year 1199, the 42d of his age and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is infamous in the Engliſh hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur, the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mo-

ther, Conſtance, complained to Philip, the king of France, who, upon John's non-appearance at his court, as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithſtanding in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour, but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he rendered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs by taking arms, but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope, and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to ſign the great deed, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunities which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charter of Henry I. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured; this charter, by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarce ſigned it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope, and the barons being apprehenſive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance, but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, and the 49th year of his reign, juſt as he had a glimpſe of reſuming his authority. Without diſputing what hiſtorians have ſaid of his arbitrary, inconſtant, and cruel diſpoſition, it is evident, from the ſame relations, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who in their turns attempted to annihilate the regal prerogative. It is undeniable, at the ſame time, that under John the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a moſt ſurprizing encreaſe. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he eſtabliſhed, and endowed all over his kingdom; and it was under him that the ſtone bridge, as it ſtood ſome years ago, was erected croſs the Thames at London. The city of London owes her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuſe a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their ſheriffs and common-council annually, as at preſent.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated, and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The French king all this time kept poſſeſſion of Normandy; but at home the pope was now become king of England, and ſent no fewer than 300 of his rapacious clergy at one time to take poſſeſſion of its beſt benefices, and to load the people with taxes. This evil was encreaſed, by Henry marrying the daughter of the king of Provence, a needy prince, whoſe poor relations engroſſed the beſt eſtates and places in the kingdom. The king was of a ſoft, pliable diſpoſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. An aſſociation of the barons was formed againſt him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons, and foreign mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible difficulties, and the famous Stephen Montfort being choſen general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners, at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort, and the earl of Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldeſt ſon, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling as many as he could of his father's ſubjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Everſham, and killed Montfort. The repreſentatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgeſſes, formed now part of the Engliſh legiſlature, in a ſeparate houſe, and this gave the firſt blow to feudal tenures in England, but hiſtorians are not agreed in what manner the commons, before this time, formed any part of the Engliſh parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in 1272, the 64th year of his age and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious. During his reign, the principal cuſtoms aroſe from the importation of French and Rheniſh wines, the Engliſh being as yet ſtrangers to thoſe of Spain, Portugal and Italy. Intereſt had in that age mounted to an enormous height, as might be expected from the barbariſm of the times, and mens ignorance of commerce, which was ſtill very low, though it ſeems rather to have encreaſed ſince the conqueſt. There are inſtances of 50 l.

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per cent. paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a freſh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them, if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had ſaid 300,000, I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing; and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew of Briſtol: and on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent. The Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required of him.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted (that the reader may have ſome idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats; (ſee Rymer's Fœdera).

Edward was a brave and a politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws, have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He paſſed the famous mortmain act, whereby all perſons were reſtrained from giving, by will or *otherwiſe*, their eſtates to thoſe *ſo called*, religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that never die, without a licenſe from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the cinque-ports, which, though now very inconſiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond ſea, with fifty-ſeven ſhips, each having twenty armed ſoldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own coſts for the ſpace of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon. Though he encouraged foreigners to trade with England, yet the aggregate body of every particular nation reſiding here, became anſwerable for the miſdmeanors of every individual perſon of their number. He regulated the forms of parli ment, and their manner of giving aids towards the nation's defence, as they now ſtand, with very little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his ſubjects rendered them a prey to the Jews,

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who were the great uſurers and money dealers of the times, he expelled them out of England, and ſeized all their immoveable eſtates. I have in the article of Scotland mentioned the unjuſtifiable manner in which he aboliſhed the independency of that kingdom; but, on the other hand, it muſt be acknowledged that he held the balance of power in Europe, and employed the vaſt ſums he raiſed from his ſubjects, for the aggrandizement of his crown and people. He had frequent wars abroad, eſpecially with France, in which he was not very ſucceſsful, and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons, and great nobility, had they not been ſo ſtrong.

His vaſt connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glaſſes and ſpectacles, though they are ſaid to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon, whom I have already mentioned. Windmills were erected in England, about the ſame time, and the regulation of gold and ſilver workmanſhip was aſcertained by an aſſay, and mark of the goldſmiths company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himſelf and the Engliſh, by draining them of their wealth, and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, eſpecially upon the affairs of Scotland, and he died in 1307, the 69th year of his age and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a freſh expedition to exterminate that people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhewed early diſpoſitions for encouraging favourites, but Gaveſton, his chief minion, being baniſhed by his father Edward, he mounted the throne, with vaſt advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, and loaded him with honours, and married Iſabella, daughter to the French king, who reſtored to him part of the territories, which Edward I. had loſt in France. The knights templars were ſuppreſſed in his reign, and the barons obliged him once more to baniſh his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling, near to which, Bannockburn, Edward in perſon received the greateſt defeat that England ever ſuffered, in 1314. Gaveſton being beheaded by the barons, Edward fixed upon young Hugh Spencer for his favourite, but he was baniſhed, together with his father, an aged nobleman of great honour and courage. His queen, a furious ambitious woman, perſuaded her huſband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard, and after defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of

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all his prerogatives. A cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes, and many noble patriots, with their eſtates, fell victims to the queen's revenge, but at laſt ſhe became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, and had been one of the moſt active of the antiroyaliſt lords. A breach between her and the Spencers ſoon followed, and going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England, that returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown, in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt, and he was moſt barbarouſly murdered in Berkeley-caſtle, by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

The fate of Edward II. was in ſome meaſure as unjuſt as it was cruel. His chief misfortune lay in not being a match for Robert Bruce, king of Scotland, the greateſt military and political genius of his age, by which the Engliſh loſt that kingdom. It cannot, at the ſame time, be denied, that he was too much engroſſed by favourites, who led him into ſanguinary meaſures. In other reſpects he was a far better friend than his father had been to public liberty. He even voluntarily limited his own prerogative, in a parliament held at London in 1324, and he ſecured the tenants of great barons, from being oppreſſed by their lords. None of his predeceſſors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and he protected his trading ſubjects with great ſpirit againſt the Hanſeatic league, and the neighbouring powers. Upon an average, the difference of living then and now ſeems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much ſilver as our money or coin of the ſame denomination does. Thus, for example, if a gooſe then coſt 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, that is 7 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ of our money, or according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now coſt 3 s. 9 d.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer, and they endeavoured to keep poſſeſſion of their power, by executing many popular meaſures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland. Edward, young as he was, was ſoon ſenſible of their deſigns. He ſurprized them in perſon at the head of a few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham. Mortimer was ignominiouſly put to a public death, and the queen herſelf was ſhut up in confinement. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, who had married his ſiſter, and who was driven

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to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary king of Scotland, and general. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without iſſue) who had ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male by ſucceſſion, but he was oppoſed by Edward, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter to the three laſt mentioned kings of France, and firſt in the female ſucceſſion. The former was preferred, but the caſe being doubtful, Edward purſued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occaſion, the vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no ſubordination. They and their men were equally undiſciplined, and diſobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The Engliſh freemen, on the other hand, having now vaſt property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themſelves with proper armour, and ſubmitting to military exerciſes, and proper ſubordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory. At Creſſy, in 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but ſixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four) though the Engliſh did not exceed 30,000. The loſs of the French far exceeded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe loſs conſiſted of no more than three knights, and one eſquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales, and the French king John, but with ſuperior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle, was double that of all the Engliſh army, but the modeſty and politeneſs with which the prince treated his royal priſoners, formed the brighteſt wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner David, king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy was fought. Thus Edward, on his return, had the glory to ſee two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards

ranſomed, but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Piers. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him, for he died diſpirited, and obſcure, at Shene, in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age and 51ſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the balance and intereſts of Europe better than Edward did. Having ſet his heart on the conqueſt of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for protection, and ſecurity to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhauſted his regal dominions; neither was his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, ſo powerful a prince as he was, in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of eſtabliſhing the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign, ſeems to have been much the ſame as in the late reign, and few of the Engliſh ſhips, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithſtanding the vaſt encreaſe of property in England, villainage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed, whether Edward made uſe of artillery, in his firſt invaſion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent caſtle of Windſor, was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people in that age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time; they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune to a man: which was a great allurement to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter carpenter was limited through the whole year to three-pence a day, a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to ſpread the doctrines of reformation by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples

of

of all ranks and ſtations. He ſeems to have been a man of parts and learning; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe, who publickly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines, which had univerſally paſſed for certain and undiſputed, during ſo many ages.

The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his ſearch into the ſcriptures, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century. But though the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reſerved for a more free and enquiring period, that gave the finiſhing blow to Romiſh ſuperſtition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. was no more than eleven years of age, when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful, both in France and Scotland. The doctrines of Wickliffe had taken root under John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle, and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate, that corn, and other victuals, were ſuffered to be tranſported, and the Engliſh had fallen upon a way of manufacturing for exportation, likewiſe their leather, horns, and other native commodities, and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they ſeem from records to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain, were of prejudice to England, and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, and others, the ſcum of the people. Their profeſt principles were thoſe of levelling, but it ſoon appeared, that their real intention was to have murdered the king, and ſeized upon the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen, but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the ſtorm of the inſurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the arch traitor, to death, in the midſt of his rabble. This, with the ſeaſonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the inſurrection for that time, but it broke out with the moſt bloody effects in other parts of England, and though it was ſuppreſſed by making many examples of ſeverity and juſtice among the inſurgents, yet the common people never after that loſt ſight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained thoſe pri-

vileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the suppression of those insurgents, have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation, but he delivered himself up to worthless favourites, particularly Sir Michael de la Pole, whom he created lord chancellor, judge Tresilian, and above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, and Richard stooped to the most ignoble measures to save them; but he found that it was not in his power. They were attainted and condemned to suffer as traitors; but Pole, and the duke of Ireland escaped abroad, where they died in obscurity. Richard associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people, and great lords, again took arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into their terms; but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king of England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk, and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party was formed in England, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refusing to fight, he was made prisoner, with no more than twenty attendants, and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of misconduct, and soon after he was starved to death in prison, in the year 1399, the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign.

Though the nobility of England were possessed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against the usury, which was but too much practised in England, and other abuses of both clergy and laity, and the destruction of the feudal powers soon followed.

Henry the fourth, * son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled in the throne of

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaster stepped forth, and having crossed himself on his forehead, and on his breast, and called upon the name of Christ,

of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III's family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him among his great men, but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown powers. This was underſtood by the Piercy family, the greateſt in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle, and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon, the famous Henry Piercy, ſurnamed the Hotſpur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to ſalve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body, lawfully begotten, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland, (afterwards James I. of that kingdom) falling a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite ſervice to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon, and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which had till then diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly encreaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden, carrying on an immenſe trade all over Europe, but with the Hanſe towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little ſurprizing, that learning was at this time at a much lower paſs in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following

Chriſt, he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, becauſe of their ſingularity.

In the name of Fadher, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, I Henry of Lancaſter, challenge this rewme of Ynglande, and the croun, with all the membres, and the appurtenances; als I that am deſcendit by right line of the blode (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *coming fro the gude king Henry therde, and throge that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, with helpe of kyn, and of my friendes, to recover it; the which rewme was in poynt to be ondone by defaut of governance, and ondoying of the gude lawes.*

terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me; or, As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt I have ſubſcribed."

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England, at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413, ſo greatly had luxury encreaſed. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliff, were exceſſively numerous, and had choſen Sir John Oldcaſtle for their head, but Henry diſperſed them, and executed their leader. Henry next turned his eyes towards France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been raviſhed from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the reign of Edward III. and availing himſelf of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom, he invaded it, where he firſt took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled thoſe of Creſſy and Poictiers in glory to the Engliſh, but exceeded them in its conſequences, on account of the vaſt number of French princes of the blood, and other great nobl'emen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French among themſelves ſo effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whoſe huſband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princeſs Catharine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her huſband's life, and him and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy, which muſt at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (tho' their king ſtill continued Henry's captive) furniſhed the dauphin with vaſt ſupplies, and preſerved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might cruſh the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been ſucceſsful, had he not died of a pleuritic diſorder, in 1422, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

Henry V's vaſt ſucceſſes in France revived the trade of England, and at the ſame time encreaſed and eſtabliſhed the privileges and liberties of the Engliſh commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty-four years of age, it is hard to ſay, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly diſtracted by the diviſions among its princes: but whether this would have been of ſervice or prejudice to the growing liberties of his Engliſh ſubjects we cannot determine.

By

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714 l. a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III's time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted to 52,507 l. so that the king had of surplus only 3,207 l. for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expence of embassies, and other articles. This sum was nowise sufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant truce to the enemy. I mention these particulars, that the reader may judge of the simplicity and temperance of our predecessors three centuries ago, when the expences of the greatest king in Europe were not so high as the pension of a superannuated courtier of the present age.

It required a prince equally able as Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was no more than nine months old, when in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France, as well as of England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and sometimes a helper in stables at public inns. She must, notwithstanding, have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of glorious actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was accidentally taken prisoner by the English, who burnt her alive for being a witch and a heretic.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the English interest in

France, and the loſs of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the amazing courage of Talbot, the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high ſpirit, but an implacable diſpoſition; while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngeſt ſon, and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe, that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is certain, he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right, but acted at firſt with a moſt profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profeſt enemy to the duke of York, but being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of 20,000 Kentiſhmen, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances, but was ſuppreſſed by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen ſeemed to be perfectly ſecure againſt the duke of York. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobility his friends, but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſt the moſt profound reverence to Henry.

The perſons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England, and his vaſt abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, aſſembling an army, the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was

once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakness became every day more and more visible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the mask, and in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the King-maker. A parliament upon this being assembled, it was enacted, that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromise. She retreated northwards, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain in 1460.

It is pretty extraordinary, that though the duke of York, and his party, openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the second battle of St. Alban's, she delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northwards. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

It may be proper to observe, that this civil war was carried on with greater animosity, than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood thirsty as her opponents, and when prisoners of either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had some time

time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl, deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's beſt friend became his moſt formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner, but eſcaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York, but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon, prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid (but with no great ſhew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward being now ſettled on the throne, was guilty of the utmoſt cruelty to all the Lancaſtrian party, whom he put to death, whenever he could find them, ſo that they were threatened with utter extermination.

The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond. He was deſcended from John Beaufort, the eldeſt ſon of the earl of Somerſet, who was the eldeſt ſon of John of Gaunt, by his laſt wife Catharine Swineford, but born in adultery, during her huſband's life-time. This diſability, however, was afterwards removed, both by the pope and by the parliament, and the deſcendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The laſt lord, John, duke of Somerſet, left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, and their ſon was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.) who, at the time I treat of, lived in France, to ſecure himſelf from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may ſee, from the detail of this important genealogy, that the young earl of Richmond had not the ſmalleſt claim in blood (even ſuppoſing the illegitimacy of his anceſtors had been removed) to the crown of England.

The kingdom of England was, in 1474, in a deplorable ſituation. The king was immerſed in expenſive and criminal

4 luxuries,

luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men, who, to ſupport their extravagancies, became penſioners to the French king. The parliament ſeemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The beſt blood in England was ſhed on ſcaffolds, and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealouſy. Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expence of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat, with France, but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England encreaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of, by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve to themſelves the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandize, but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which was imported into England by William Caxton, and received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign, but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman, who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton, are moſtly re-tranſlations or compilations from the French, or Monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progreſs among the Engliſh, than it did in any other European nation.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen, and his uncle, the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to baſtardize her iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and, at laſt, accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners, having firſt put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king, and his brother, were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was afterwards well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck.

Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV's friends, and by offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England, at the head of about 2000 foreign troops, but they were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley, and his brother in the year 1485.

There can ſcarcely be a doubt, that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by hiſtorians. He was exemplary in his diſtributive juſtice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whoſe oppreſſions he aboliſhed, and was a father to the common people. He founded the ſociety of heralds, an inſtitution, which, in his time, was found neceſſary to prevent diſputes among great families. During his reign, ſhort as it was, we have repeated inſtances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than ſeventy-two different kinds being prohibited importation by one act. He was the firſt Engliſh king who appointed a conſul for the ſuperintendency of Engliſh commerce abroad, one Strozzi being nominated for Piſa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Engliſhmen imported to or exported from thence. I ſhall not enter into the ſubject of the concern he had in the ſuppoſed murder of his two nephews, but only obſerve, that the temporizing parliament, by baſtardizing them, cut them off from the ſucceſſion to the crown.

Though the ſame act of baſtardy affected the daughters, as well as the ſons of the late king, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houſes of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, reſted his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay no regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the moſt ſagacious monarch that ever had reigned in England; but, at the ſame time, the moſt jealous of his power, for he ſhut up the earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke

duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. a close prisoner in the Tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alledged against him but his propinquity to the house of York. He was the first who instituted that guard called Yeomen, which still subsists, and in imitation of his predecessor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries, and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, by assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were easily suppressed, as was the imposture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the imprisoned earl of Warwick. The despotic court of star chamber, owed its original to Henry, but, at the same time, it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects. They expressed their gratitude, by the great supplies and benevolences they afforded him, and as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, tho' its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had broken with irresistible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges, and thus the baronial powers were soon extinguished in England.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the possession of his throne, by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as such by the duchess of Burgundy, Edward's sister. We shall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon, but it is certain that many of the English, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland dismissed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldest daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and dismissed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person, which

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he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. It is ſaid, that Perkin made a confeſſion of his impoſtors before his death, but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either upon the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur, prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine, of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a moſt magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterling, which is equivalent to five millions at preſent, ſo that he may be ſuppoſed to have been maſter of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked.

I have already mentioned the vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitution of England, during Henry VII's reign. His exceſſive love of money was the probable reaſon why he did not become maſter of the Weſt-Indies, he having the firſt offer of the diſcovery from Columbus, whoſe propoſals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he ſet out upon the diſcovery of a new world, in the year 1492, which he effected after a paſſage of 33 days, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry however made amends by encouraging Cabot, who diſcovered the main land of North America, in 1498, and we may obſerve, to the praiſe of this king, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants ſums of money, without intereſt, when he knew, that their ſtock was not ſufficient for thoſe enterprizes, which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living produced by Madox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle muſt have been prodigiouſly advanced, before Henry's death; an inſtance of this is given in the caſe of lady Anne, ſiſter to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week, for her exhibition, ſuſtentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; alſo, for two gentlewomen,

women, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight perſons) 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and cloathing; and for the maintenance of ſeven horſes yearly, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horſe 2l. 7s. 0d. $\frac{1}{2}$ yearly, money being ſtill $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as weighty as our modern ſilver coin. Wheat was that year no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which anſwers to 5s. of our money, conſequently it was about ſeven times as cheap as at preſent; ſo that had all other neceſſaries been equally cheap, ſhe could have lived as well as on 1260l. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at preſent.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy, and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe, but it is certain, that he neglected theſe advantages in commerce, with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not ſtand in need of a ſupply, he did not improve Cabot's diſcoveries, and he ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of all France. Theſe projects, and his eſtabliſhing what is properly called a navy royal, for the permanent defence of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure) led him into incredible expences. He was on all occaſions the dupe of the emperor Maximilian, the pooreſt prince in Europe, and early in his reign he gave himſelf almoſt entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolſey. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant, the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England, and he became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles, but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burdens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes, and the Romiſh church.

church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have ſome ſcruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I ſhall not ſay, how far on this occaſion he might be influenced by the charms of the famous Anne Bullen, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this proceſs, ruined Wolſey, who died of heart-break, after being ſtript of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions; and had introduced into the king's favour Cranmer, who was afterwards archbiſhop of Canterbury.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt to throw off all relation to or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation, in which, however, many of the Romiſh errors and ſuperſtitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of his queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations, and he was declared arbitrary by repeated acts of parliament, which aſſembled only as a board to execute his pleaſures. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and the immenſe wealth that came to Henry, by ſeizing all the eccleſiaſtical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition, ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood of England was daily ſhed on ſcaffolds, and few days paſſed that were not marked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his tyranny. Among others was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to the cardinal Pole, the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarce bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he ſuffered her to reſide in England, on a penſion of 3000 l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was queen Catherine Par, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after narrowly eſcaping being brought to the ſtake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty

encreaſed

encreaſed with his years, and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on Proteſtants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The ſtate of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the deſpotic power he was poſſeſſed of, in many reſpects for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that had the reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws, and the courts of juſtice, it probably never could have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; and whatever Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus, which is another name for learning itſelf. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houſes began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the ſee of Rome. Much of the popiſh leaven, however, ſtill remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms, a meaſure which the late king had recommended with his dying breath to his executors. The

protector defeated the Scots at Pinkey, but the match never took place; and the factions now forming againſt the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who had married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies, and ſhe dying, he made his addreſſes to the princeſs Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a handle to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block, where he loſt his head.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reign of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vaſt relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and being ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in this reign. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was, upon the whole, a weak, but conſcientious man, was ſo intent upon religion, that he was firſt driven from the helm of ſtate, and then loſt his head upon a ſcaffold, by a faction formed equally of papiſts and pretended proteſtants. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a ſincere proteſtant, into many impolitic acts, ſo that upon the whole England never made a poorer figure than it did in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and other, ſome of them foreign, divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation, which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome cruel ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame, and his charitable endowments, which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhew the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a deep conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will, for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recognized the claim of the princeſs Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her huſband lord Guilford Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland, who ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to reeſtabliſh popery, which ſhe did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from baniſhment, made him the principal inſtrument of her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Engliſh reformed church, were conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number of other ſacrifices of both ſexes, and all ranks, that ſuffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner, biſhop of London, and Gardiner biſhop of Wincheſter, were, under Pole, the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had ſhe lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to exterminate all her proteſtant ſubjects.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that by the marriage articles proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, which ſhe furniſhed to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her perſecuting flames, (ſays a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to aſhes, 5 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 huſbandmen, ſervants, and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, ſpringing out of the mother's womb from the ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the fire."

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Bullen, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grand-child to Henry VII's eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally ſhe had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and ſoul of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age, at the time of her inauguration, but her ſufferings under her bigotted ſiſter, joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and ſhe ſoon conquered all difficulties. Even to mention every glorious action

of her reign, would far exceed my bounds, I ſhall therefore here only touch on the great lines of her government.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurprizing facility, for in her firſt parliament, in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing popery were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed ſoon after. With regard to her title, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malecontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage, and her other misfortunes drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had been often promiſed a ſafe and an honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without the leaſt proof of guilt, cut off her head, an action which muſt have tarniſhed all the glories of her reign had it been a thouſand times more ſplendid than it was.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed, in fact, the main buſineſs of her government, they exhibit different ſcenes of wonderful events, partly ariſing from her own maſterly conduct, partly from the ſagacity of her ſtateſmen, and partly from the intrepid[illegible]of her forces by ſea and land.

The ſame Philip, who had be[illegible]e huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion [illegible]e throne, offered to marry her, but ſhe dextrouſly avoide[illegible] addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful negociation[illegible]s betwee[illegible] court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europ[illegible] undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She ſometimes ſupported the proteſtants of France; and ſhe ſometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alenzon the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the ſame time in ſo good humour with her government, that it ſhewed no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amuſed and baffled him in every quarter; it is well known that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt

beſt captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. No reader can be ſo uninformed as to be ignorant of the conſequences, that the largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they engaged; that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave ſea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days, and that the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and that few of the Spaniſh ſhips recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Forbiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency upon Spain, and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treaſures taken from the Spaniards into England.

After the death of the earl of Leiceſter, the young earl of Eſſex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz in Spain, deſtroyed the ſhips in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teized him by her capriciouſneſs into the madneſs of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that ſhe had been betrayed into this ſanguinary meaſure, and this occaſioned a ſinking of her ſpirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

The above, as I have already hinted, form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign, and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She cruſhed the papiſts in her own dominions for the ſame reaſon, and made a further reformation in the church of England, in

which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In 1600 the Engliſh Eaſt-India company received its firſt formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in conſequence of their having firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the cape of Good Hope) who at that time were ſubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had uſually recourſe to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was ſo low, that, beſides the exorbitant intereſt of 10 or 12 per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the ſecurity. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the Grand Signior had always conceived England to be a dependant province of France. About 1590 there were in London four perſons only rated in the ſubſidy book ſo high as 400 l. In 1567 there were found on enquiry to be 4851 ſtrangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it, for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of Engliſhmen. Before I cloſe this ſhort account of her reign, I am to obſerve, that through the practices of the Spaniards with the Iriſh Roman catholics, ſhe found great difficulty to keep that iſland in ſubjection, and at the time of her death her government there had gone into great diſorder.

We can ſcarce require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the long inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities for government, but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional powers that had been exerciſed by Elizabeth, and the houſe of Tudor; and while he was boaſting of an almoſt unlimited prerogative, there was not ſo much as a ſingle regiment in England to maintain his extenſive claims; a ſufficient proof that he ſincerely believed his pretenſions to be well grounded. He made no allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as I have obſerved, diſguiſed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal

ſentiments

ſentiments which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffuſed through England. It is needleſs, perhaps, to point out the vaſt encreaſe of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the Engliſh at the ſame time to defend their liberties. James's firſt attempt of great conſequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the averſion of the Engliſh to that meaſure, he ſhewed no violent reſentment at the diſappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gun-powder treaſon *.

I have taken notice, in ſeveral preceding parts of this work, of the vaſt obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince; and, in fact, he laid the foundations of all the advantages which the Engliſh have reaped from either. That his pedantry was ridiculous cannot be denied; and it is certain that he had no juſt ideas of the Engliſh conſtitution and liberties. This led him into many abſurd diſputes with his parliament, and has thrown a moſt diſagreeable ſhade upon his memory. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, I may venture to affirm that it was productive of many bleſſings to England; and though his perpetual negociations have given riſe to much ſatire againſt his perſon and government, yet they were leſs expenſive and de-

* This was a ſcheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament, when it was alſo expected that the queen, and prince of Wales, would be preſent. The manner of enliſting any new conſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtring the ſacrament; and this dreadful ſecret, after being religiouſly kept near 18 months, was happily diſcovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long wiſhed for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance on parliament at that time, but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gun-powder; and it was judged adviſable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament, but the ſearch was purpoſely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault under the upper houſe, finding one Fawkes, who had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeized him, and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never exceeded 80 in number, being ſeized by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of London. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigotted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr.

ſtructive to his people than any wars he could have entered into. He reſtored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon diſcharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he procured from Spain at the ſame time an acknowledgment of their independ ncy.

James gave his daughter the princeſs Elizabeth in marriage to the elector palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and he ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour after that prince had loſt his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved that he always oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the ſame, excepting the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing, however, is more certain than that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2200 men, under Sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general, and that the elector hurt his own cauſe by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops inſtead of Anſpach.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Car, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raiſed to be firſt miniſter and earl of Somerſet. He married the counteſs of Eſſex, who had obtained a divorce from her huſband, and was with her found guilty of poiſoning Sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary as is ſaid to a ſolemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies. James having loſt his eldeſt ſon Henry, prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and againſt the king's will they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where

where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was played, but the prince returned without his bride, and, had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands; and at laſt he agreed to his ſon's marrying the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match, and it is thought that had he lived, he would have diſcarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of 22 years. As to the progreſs of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already deſcribed. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture in England. His was the golden reign for theological learning; and under him poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princeſs Henrietta Maria. He ſeems to have been but a cold lover, and he quarrelled with and ſent back her favourite attendants a few days after her arrival in England. On the other hand ſhe had a high ſpirit, diſdained and diſliked every thing that was incompatible in government with her Italian and arbitrary education, and was a diſagreeable wife, notwithſtanding her huſband's ſubmiſſion and tenderneſs. The ſpirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles early gave ſuch indications of his partiality for Buckingham, and his own deſpotic temper, that the parliament was remiſs in furniſhing him with money for carrying on the war. In a ſhort time Buckingham perſuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots, in their quarrel with that crown. They were ſo ill ſupported, though Charles was ſincere in ſerving them, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the proteſtant intereſt received an irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miſcarriages and diſgraces was thrown by, the almoſt, unanimous voice both of the parliament and people upon the favourite; but he ſheltered himſelf from their vengeance under the royal protection till he was murdered by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which ſoon after ſurrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which

which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament, after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons had voted him no money even for the maintenance of his houſhold, and preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all underſtood, he levied money upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch neceſſaries, and other obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Boſtwick, a phyſician, all of them men of mean parts, but deſperately reſolute and fiery, ſounded the trumpet of ſedition, and their puniſhments were ſo ſevere that they encreaſed the unpopularity of the government. Unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and to introduce the religion of the church of England into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England, where Charles was ſo ill-ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party being ſincere in obſerving the terms, and Charles diſcovering that ſome of their great men had offered to throw themſelves under the protection of the French king, he raiſed a freſh army by virtue of his prerogative. All his preparations, however, were baffled by the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham, and being now openly befriended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with ſo bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpoſe, that it did him no ſervice; on the contrary it encouraged the commons to riſe in their

their demands. He had made Wentworth earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, president of the council of the north, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been at the head of the opposition, and by changing his party he became so much the object of public detestation, that they forced Charles in an illegal and imperious manner to consent to the cutting off his head; and Laud lost his soon after in like manner.

Charles, upon various occasions, saw the necessity of moderation, and sought to recover the affections of his people, first by passing the Petition of Right, and afterwards agreeing to other popular demands made by the commons. These compliances did him no service. A rebellion broke out in Ireland, where the protestants were massacred by the papists, and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them out of hatred to his English subjects. The bishops were expelled the house of peers, and the leaders of the English house of commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles was ill enough advised to go in person to the house of commons, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haselrig, and Mr. Stroud, should be apprehended, but they previously had made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them. The city of London took the alarm, and the accused members into its protection. The train-bands were raised, and the mobs were so unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkshire, where he raised an army to face that which the parliament, or rather the house of commons, had raised in and about London.

That the nation in general did not think their liberties in danger, or that the king was a tyrant, appears from the alacrity and numbers with which he was served, and which was composed of three-fourths of the landed property of England. The parliament, however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by many of the trading towns and corporations, but its great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave, but not an enterprizing commander, but he had great dependence on his nephews the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector palatine, by his sister the princess Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war the sense of honour which prevailed among the king's officers was too strong for the principles on which the parliament forces fought, but a spirit of enthusiasm catching the latter, it became too powerful for honour. The earl of

Essex

Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edge-hill in Warwickſhire, in October 1642; but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles, for the parliament was ſo much diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, and they accordingly invaded England anew, with about 20,000 horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies continued ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, where they proſecuted their animoſities againſt the royaliſts with great fury. The independent party, which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to unmaſk themſelves and to figure at Weſtminſter. They equally hated the preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the rebellion, as they did the royaliſts, and ſuch was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed, for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex, and Mancheſter, and the heads of the preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a preſbyterian, and ſome independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with unremitting fury on both ſides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewiſe many other ſucceſſes, and having defeated Sir William Waller, he purſued the earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to eſcape by ſea, but his infantry ſurrendered themſelves priſoners to the royaliſts, though his cavalry delivered themſelves by their valour.

The firſt fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marſton-moor, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Mancheſter defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken priſoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell, and tho' it might have been retrieved by the ſucceſſes of Charles in the weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſtring of miſtakes, till at laſt, his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were ſet on foot during the war, and the heads of the preſbyterian party would have agreed to terms, that would have bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted, betrayed, and overruled, by the independents, who were aſſiſted by the ſtiffneſs, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In ſhort, the independents at laſt ſucceeded, in perſuading the members at Weſtminſter, that Charles was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royaliſts ruſhed into ruin. Sir Thomas Fairfax, whoſe father, lord

Fairfax,

Fairfax, remained in the north, was at the head of the army, which was now new modelled, so that Charles by piecemeal lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, owing partly as usual to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark, and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians, but the best and most loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy situation of his affairs, he escaped in disguise from Oxford to the Scotch army before Newark, upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated, by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that they put the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, not suspecting the fatal consequences.

The presbyterians now saw, more than ever, the necessity of making peace with the king, but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The latter now avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners in June 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and that of the commons was reduced to 150 independents, and most of them officers of the army. In the mean while Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissentions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the independents, with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried, and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an escape, to put himself into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the isle of Wight. A fresh negociation was begun and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, once more seized upon the king's person, brought him a prisoner to London, carried him before a mock court of justice, of their own erecting, and after a sham trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and there is reason to believe, that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that had he been restored to his throne, he would have become a most excellent prince. This undoubtedly was the sense of his people, at the time of his murder,

murder, as it was univerſally deteſted by all but the parricides, who brought him to the block, and were heated by enthuſiaſm. Many, in the courſe of the rebellion, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became ſincere converts to his cauſe, in which they loſt their lives and fortunes, and never did any prince die more generally lamented, than he did, by his people. We cannot reflect upon the great loſs of lives, to the amount at leaſt of 100,000 fighting men, during the ſix years of the civil war, without being inclined to think that England was more populous then, than it is now. Though the hiſtory of that period has been minutely related, by writers of all parties, who had the very beſt opportunities to know the true ſtate of the nation, yet we do not find that the loſs of men had any influence upon agriculture or commerce, or the exerciſe of the common arts of life, and proviſions rather ſunk than roſe in their value. The ſurviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England, Henry, duke of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration; the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William, prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed moſt amazing abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England, and it cannot be denied, that after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things, for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both factions hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots, at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation, and declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible at ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated the republic, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the

Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea, to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten, for which reaſon he went without any ceremony, with a file of muſqueteers, diſſolved the parliament, and opprobriouſly drove all the members out of their houſe. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea, were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year, and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in his reſolution. He was however declared lord protector of the common wealth of England, a title, under which he exerciſed all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to new model the government, and various were the ſchemes that were propoſed, eſtabliſhed, and proved abortive. Thoſe ſchemes, however, were temporary, and ſuited to each juncture, nor have we any high idea of Cromwell's political capacity, but in his management of the army, by which he did every thing. He was openly or ſecretly thwarted by people of property all over England, and however dazzled hiſtorians have been with his amazing fortune and power, it appears, from the beſt evidences, that during the continuance of his protectorate, he was perpetually diſtreſt for money, to keep the wheels of his government going.

His wants at laſt led him into the fatal error of taking part with France againſt Spain, in hopes that the rich Spaniſh prizes would ſupply him with ready money. He lent the French court 6000 men, and Dunkirk being taken by their aſſiſtance from the Spaniards, he took poſſeſſion of it. Finding that his uſurpation gave as much diſcontent to his own party, as terror to the royaliſts, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the conſtitution, and actually erected a houſe of lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted either in England, or Scotland, more deſpotically than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing a character of Cromwell, have been

been impoſed upon by his amazing ſucceſs, and dazzled by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult Thurloe's, and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died ſurrounded by enthuſiaſts, on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the death of Eliſabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who as it were inſtantaneouſly called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any fixed plan of legiſlation, and his ſafety was owing to the different ſentiments of government, that prevailed among the heads of the republic. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million, three hundred thouſand pounds, of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year, Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and ſoccage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewiſe removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to two millions, three hundred twenty ſix thouſand, nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions, three hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole it appears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches as in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a ſure ſymptom of encreaſing commerce. The navigation act, that palladium of the Engliſh trade, was planned and eſtabliſhed, though afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant ſchemes having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations, we may add the modeſty and frugality, introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increaſe their capitals. It appears however that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken thro' the ſober maxims of the republicans; for, ſome time before

his death, he affected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. We know of no art, or ſcience, that was patronized by the uſurper, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the perſon of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simons, exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He is likewiſe ſaid to have paid ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe entruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his father Oliver, as protector, ſufficiently proves the little forecaſt, which the latter had in matters of government, and his being almoſt totally unbefriended. Richard was placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government, and he was ſoon after driven without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition into contempt and obſcurity. It is in vain for hiſtorians of any party to aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious ſubſiſtence) to the merits of any particular perſons. It was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who found by experience, that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient conſtitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt, had the ſagacity to obſerve this, and after temporizing in various ſhapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in reſtoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being reſtored in 1660, in the firſt year of his reign, ſeemed to be under no influence, but that of his people's happineſs. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life, and in this act, coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence, and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England, the culture of many elegant vegetables, ſuch as that of aſparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered, but neglected, by the Engliſh, during the late uſurpation, was improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and colonization were paſſed. In ſhort, Charles knew, and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence, failings that had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He took a paternal concern in the ſufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666, and its being rebuilt with

greater luſtre and conveniences, is a proof of the encreaſe of her trade; but there was no bound of Charles's love of pleaſure, which led him into the moſt extravagant expences. He has been ſeverely, but perhaps unjuſtly cenſured, for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king, to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000 l. ſterling. In this he is more defenſible, than he was with his ſecret connections with France. Theſe are ſuppoſed to have brought on a war with the Dutch, but their behaviour and ingratitude to England, merited the ſevereſt chaſtiſement.

The firſt ſymptoms of his degeneracy as a king, appeared in his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, one of the wiſeſt and moſt diſintereſted ſtateſmen, that ever England could boaſt of, and ſacrificing him to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on, with great reſolution and ſpirit, under the duke of York, but through Charles's miſapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to inſult the royal navy of England, by ſailing up the Medway, as far as Chatham, and deſtroyed ſeveral capital ſhips of war. Soon after this a peace was concluded at Breda, between Great Britain, and the States general, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands, and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, it was called the triple alliance.

If we look into the hiſtory of thoſe times, we ſhall find that the humbling the power of France, was the ruling paſſion of almoſt all the reſt of Europe; but at the ſame time every ſtate at enmity with her, had particular views of its own, which defeated every plan of confederacy againſt the French power. The ſituation of Charles, in this reſpect, was delicate. The inſults and rivalſhip of the Dutch, were intolerable to the trading part of his people, but his parliament thought that all conſiderations ought to give way to the humiliation of the French king. Charles found ſuch oppoſition from his parliament, and ſuch difficulties in raiſing money, that he was perſuaded by his French miſtreſs, the ducheſs of Portſmouth, to throw himſelf into the arms of the French king, who promiſed to ſupply him with money, ſufficient to enable him to rule without a parliament. This has always been a capital charge againſt Charles II. and it had, I am apt to think, too great a weight with his parliament, whoſe conduct, in ſome particulars, is not to be vindicated.

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In 1671, Charles was ſo ill adviſed, as to ſeize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to ſhut up the Exchequer. This was an indefenſible ſtep, and Charles pretended to juſtify it by the neceſſity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a freſh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almoſt proved fatal to that republic. In this war the Engliſh fleet, and army, acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet, and diſplayed great gallantry in that ſtation. The duke of Monmouth, the eldeſt and favourite natural ſon of Charles, commanded 6000 Engliſh forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries, and all Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch, Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and ſome very unforeſeen circumſtances.

All confidence was now loſt between Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the glory which the Engliſh fleet obtained by ſea againſt the Dutch. The popular clamour at laſt obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in conſideration of 200,000 l. which was paid him; but in ſome things Charles acted very deſpotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houſes, and ordered them to be ſhut up, but in a few days after to be opened. His parliament addreſſed him, but in vain, to make war with France, in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a penſioner. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly encreaſed, and Charles entered into many vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport.

This gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more furious, and untractable, againſt the French and the Papiſts; at the head of whom was the king's eldeſt brother, and preſumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles, notwithſtanding the oppoſition he met with in parliament, knew that he had the affections of his people, but was too indolent to take advantage of that circumſtance. He dreaded the proſpect of a civil war, and offered any conceſſions to avoid it. The conduct of his parliament on this occaſion is indefenſible. Many of the members were bent upon ſuch a revolution as afterwards took place, and were ſecretly determined, that the duke of York never ſhould reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and ſome other miſcreants, forged a plot, charging the papiſts with a deſign to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jeſuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridicu-

lous, and more self-contradictory, than the whole of this forgery, yet it was supported by even a frantic zeal, on the part of the parliament. The aged and innocent lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other papists, were publickly executed on perjured evidences. The queen herself escaped with difficulty: the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an infamous imposture, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force. The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill advised duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers. All England was again in a flame, but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, recovered the affections of his people, to an almost incredible degree.

The duke of York, and his party, made a scandalous use of their victory. They trumped up on their side a plot of the protestants for killing or seizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that which had been forged against the papists. The excellent lord Russel, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death, and the king set his foot upon the neck of opposition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, as were almost all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth, and the earl of Shaftesbury, were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and to have executed some measures for the future quiet of his reign, when he died in February, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa, but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendents of his natural sons and daughters, are now among the most distinguished of the British nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, I have been sufficiently explicit as to the principles, both of the king and the opposition to his government. The heads of the latter were presbyterians, and had been greatly instrumental in the civil war against the late king, and the usurpations that followed. They had been raised and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being useful in bringing their party into his measures, and he would probably have succeeded, had not the remains of

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the old royaliſts, and the diſſipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleaſure. The preſbyterians, however, availed themſelves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervour of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament ſuch a number of their friends, as rendered the reign of Charles very uneaſy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them, that civil liberty, and proteſtantiſm, now exiſt in the Engliſh government. On the other hand, they ſeem to have carried their jealouſy of a popiſh ſucceſſor too far, and the people, without doors, certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been ſatisfied with the legal reſtraints and diſabilities, which Charles offered to impoſe upon his ſucceſſor. This gave ſuch a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, maſters of the laws and liberties of England.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and galantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate. The court was the nurſery of vice, and the ſtages exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers, however, were found, who could admire Milton, as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England ſo well ſupplied with preachers, as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witneſs the ſtile of their ſermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Auguſtan age of mathematics, and natural philoſophy. Charles loved, patronized and underſtood the arts, more than he encouraged, or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth, but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedneſs but indolence, and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the firſt Engliſh prince, who formed a body of ſtanding forces, as guards to his perſon, it ought to be remembered, at the ſame time, that he carried the art of ſhip-building to the higheſt perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his, and his brother's complete knowledge of naval affairs and architecture.

All the oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed, at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was encreaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtantiſm. The army and people ſupported him, in cruſhing an ill-formed and indeed wicked rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and, as ſuch, had aſſumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off

James desperately resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed him. He made the most provoking steps to render popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws; he instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, he openly received and admitted into his privy-council, the pope's emissaries, and gave them more respect than was due to the ministers of a sovereign prince. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almost beyond description, and were disapproved of by the pope himself, and all sober Roman catholics. His sending to prison, and prosecuting for a libel, seven bishops, for presenting a petition against reading his declaration, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his best protestant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William, prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king's eldest daughter, and he embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, on pretence of restoring church and state to their due rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter the princess Anne, and her husband, George, prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange, who soon discovered that he expected the crown. James might still have reigned, but he was surrounded with French emissaries, and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign rather than not restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen and son, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person, which he did; and thus in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in English history is termed *the revolution.*

This short reign affords little matter for the national progress in its true interests. James is allowed, on all hands, to have understood them, and that had it not been for his bigotry, he would have been a most excellent king of England. The writings of the English divines against popery, in this reign, are esteemed to be the most masterly pieces of controversy that ever were published on that subject.

Had it not been for the baleful influence of the Jesuits over James, the prince of Orange might have found his views upon the crown frustrated. The conduct of James gave him advantages,

vantages, he could not have hoped for. Few were in the prince's ſecret, and when a convention of the ſtates was called, it was plain, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princeſs of Orange. Even that was not done without long debates. It is well known that king William's chief object, was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England, at an expence ſhe had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns, and he gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, which contained all the people could claim, for the preſervation of their liberties. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore divided, part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament, and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke the people of England to agree to the late revolution, for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity, as in the year 1688. The tonage of their merchant ſhips, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 encreaſed to 101,032 tons. The encreaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England, was in the ſame proportion. It was therefore no wonder, if a ſtrong party, both in the parliament and nation, was formed againſt the government, which was hourly encreaſed by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expence, and the Iriſh continued in general, faithful to king James. Many Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt, and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyn againſt James, who there loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France, however, proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue, which the French feel to this day.

Invaſions were threatened, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government, and the ſupply of the continental

war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal, were the heaviest taxed, and this preposterous burthen still continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances, that ever took place, was established in this reign, which was carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary securities, which form what are now called the public funds. The chief projector of this scheme, is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the moneyed part of the nation to befriend the revolution interest, because after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid, but by supporting that interest, and that the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious. How well those views have been answered, is needless to observe, as I have already mentioned the present state of public credit.

William, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the recoining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being supported in his war with France, but at last, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryswick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had lost his queen, but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, all but an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign his fears of seeing the whole Spanish monarchy in possession of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic measure, which was the Partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houses of Bourbon and Austria. This treaty was highly resented by the parliament, and some of his ministry were impeached for advising it. It is thought that William saw his error when it was too late. His ministers were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James discovered the insincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his son king of Great Britain.

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This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt and moſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſing the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, on the twelfth of June, 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall he had from his horſe, ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the eighth of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding. His notions of national government inclined towards deſpotiſm; and it was obſerved, that though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he favoured the tories, as often as he could do it with ſafety. The reſcue and preſervation of religion and public liberty were the chief glories of William's reign, for England under him ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the then unheard of ſum of 14,000,000. I have nothing to add after this, as to the general ſtate of England in the beginning of the 18th century.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, being the next proteſtant heir to her father James II. ſucceeded king William in the throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures, but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has ſince been well known by the name of the pretender, left her no choice, and ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a ſtateſman, for that earl excelled in both. No ſooner was he placed at the head of the Engliſh army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, and at the ſame time reſenting the Partition treaty, in which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance, that ſtill ſubſiſts, between France and that nation. Philip's ſucceſſion was however diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the empire, England, Holland,

land, and other powers who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquiſition of the whole Spaniſh dominions.

The capital meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part tories, and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter, and the earl could truſt no other with that important department.

I ſhall hereafter have occaſion to mention the glorious victories obtained by the earl, who was ſoon made duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramilies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate deſtruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken priſoner, and ſent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, Sir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. The battle of Ramilies was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported; it is generally ſuppoſed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramilies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant, and acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken priſoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, with the loſs of about 20,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after

after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment if not to the diſgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high admiral, but he had truſted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant, and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the houſe of commons were put in very bad humour, nor did things ſeem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immenſe ſums raiſed for the current ſervice of the year being ſeverely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, it appeared that England had borne the chief burden of the war; that neither the Auſtrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furniſhed their ſtipulated quotas, and that they truſted to the Engliſh parliament for making them good. A noble deſign, which had been planned at the court, and was to have been executed by the aſſiſtance of the fleet of England, for taking Toulon, at a vaſt expence, miſcarried through the ſelfiſhneſs of the court of Vienna, whoſe chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the ſame time England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures, and the French king, the haughty Lewis XIV. now profeſſed his readineſs to agree to almoſt any terms the Engliſh ſhould preſcribe.

Theſe and many other internal diſputes about the prerogative, the ſucceſſion, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferments in the nation and parliament. The queen ſtuck cloſe to the duke of Marlborough and his friends, who finding that the tories inclined to treat with France, put themſelves at the head of the whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents received immenſe emoluments. The failures of the Germans and Dutch could not however be longer diſſembled, and the perſonal intereſt of the ducheſs of Marlborough with the queen began to be ſhaken by her own inſolence.

The whigs at laſt were forced to give way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. It ſoon appeared that the Engliſh plenipotentiaries were not in earneſt, and that the Dutch were entirely guided by the duke of Marlborough. The French king was gradually brought to comply with all the demands of the allies, excepting that of employing his own troops againſt the duke of Anjou,

Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued ſtill doubtful. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his aſſociate, and the war was continued.

The unreaſonable haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg ſaved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in their favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was not deſtitute of ſenſe, and faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the people was that the church was in danger, which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's caſe. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough, and the whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay.

Conferences were opened for a peace at Utrecht, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries, and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew ſenſible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been indefenſible had it not been for the death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain, and the bad faith of the Engliſh allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Mr. Harley, who was created earl of Oxford, and lord high treaſurer of England, was then conſidered as the queen's firſt miniſter, but the negociations for the peace went through the hands of Mr. Harley and lord Bolingbroke, one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate. The miniſtry endeavoured to ſtifle the complaints of the whigs, and

and the remonſtrances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accuſed of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical ſituation. The whigs, without attempting to anſwer the arguments of the tories for peace, condemned it as ſhameful. The majority of the houſe of lords was of that party, but that of the houſe of commons were tories. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exerciſe of her prerogative ſhe created twelve peers at one time, which ſecured the approbation of the parliament for the peace. Such was the ſtate of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion that the queen had by ſome ſecret influence, which never has yet been diſcovered, and was even concealed from her miniſters, inclined to call her brother to the ſucceſſion. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties. The whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England, and ſhe was obliged to diſmiſs her lord treaſurer, when ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off the firſt of Auguſt 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign*. I have nothing to add to what I have already ſaid of her character, but that though ſhe was a favourite with neither party in her parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the tories affected to idolize her, yet her people dignified her with the name of the Good queen Anne. Notwithſtanding all I have ſaid of the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions, ſo firm was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of parliament.

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry any important reſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indeciſive a ſtate, that upon her death the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king of Great Britain, his mother, who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; while the Scots were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily ſuppreſſed the beginning of the next year

* And with her ended the Houſe of Stewart, which from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371.

year. Some deluded noblemen and gentlemen in the north of England joined a party of the Scotch rebels, but they were ſurrounded at Preſton, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were ſent priſoners to London, where ſome of them ſuffered. The tories and Jacobites, however, raiſed mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England, but they were ſoon ſuppreſſed by making their ringleaders examples of juſtice. Lord Oxford was impriſoned for three years, but the capital proſecution of him by the whigs for the hand he had in the peace of Utrecht, was ſecretly diſapproved of by the king, and dropped.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was ſitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years, which is thought to have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamentary power ever known. Several other extraordinary meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the Tower for ſaying that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadverſion. The truth is, the whig miniſtry were exceſſively jealous of every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſter's title, and George I. though a ſagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too ſubſervient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muſcovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden been killed ſo critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by thoſe northern conquerors, great preparations being made for that purpoſe.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance, that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the ſtates general; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet near Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy and the latter to the emperor.

A national puniſhment different from plague, peſtilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the South-Sea Stock, one of the trading companies. This company was but of late erection, and was owing to a ſcheme of carrying on an excluſive trade, and making a ſettlement in the South-Seas, which had been formed in 1711. In 1720 the company obtained an act to encreaſe their capital

ſtock by redeeming the public debts; and was then inveſted with the aſſiento of negroes, which had been ſtipulated between Great Britain and Spain. In ſhort, it became ſo favourite a company, that by the twentieth of June this year, their ſtock roſe to 890 per cent. and afterwards to 1000; but before the end of September it fell to 150, by which thouſands were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconſiderate avarice of the ſubſcribers, yet the public imagined that the miniſtry had contributed to the calamity; and ſome of the directors inſinuated as if the miniſters and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the addreſs to eſcape without cenſure, but the parliament paſſed a bill which confiſcated the eſtates of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance; a poor reparation for the public injuries.

The Jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent of the South-Sea ſcheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day encreaſed. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high-treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were apprehended on ſuſpicion, but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee and ſeat in parliament, and baniſhed for life. This muſt have been at beſt an idle plot, and the reality of it has never been diſcovered, ſo that the juſtice of the biſhop's cenſure has been queſtioned. After the ferment of this plot had ſubſided, the miniſtry, who were all in the intereſt of Hanover, ventured upon ſeveral bold meaſures, in ſome of which the national intereſt if not honour was evidently ſacrificed to that electorate. The crown of Great Britain was engaged in every continental diſpute, however remote it was from her intereſt; and a difference ſtill ſubſiſting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna, it was agreed that it ſhould be determined by a congreſs to be held at Cambray, under the auſpices of France. This congreſs proved abortive, and England was involved in freſh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that in September 1725, a freſh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies to watch the Spaniſh plate fleets. This laſt was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The

management

management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe. The king, in his ſpeech to the parliament, publicly accuſed the emperor of a deſign to place the pretender upon the throne of Great Britain, but this was ſtrenuouſly denied by baron Palmer, the imperial reſident at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

A quarrel with the imperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more laviſh in granting money, and raiſing enormous ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the eleventh of June 1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. This period is too late to offer any thing new by way of obſervation on national improvements. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects, to which it gave riſe, and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which the Engliſh took in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the ſinking fund for diminiſhing the national debt, is likewiſe owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures began to ſhift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of the land tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their eſtates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died, and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown that Sir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe could another perſon have been found equally capable, as he was, to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none perhaps ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. The times are too recent for me to enter upon particulars. It is ſufficient to ſay, that during his long adminiſtration

adminiſtration he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt in the next general election. Having compromiſed all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embaſſies and negociations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the ſubſidies paid to the German princes for the ſecurity of Hanover, and had even the addreſs to obtain from time to time votes of credit for fulfilling his intermediate engagements, and in the mean while, to amuſe the public, he ſuffered enquiries into the ſtate of the jails, and other matters that did not affect his own power, to proceed.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him, however, into inconveniencies both at home and abroad. He encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, about the year 1736 and 1737, encreaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in a parliament, and taking advantage of the encreaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they gave the miniſter great uneaſineſs. Having thus ſhewn Walpole's adminiſtration in the unfavourable, it is but juſt we turn to the moſt advantageous light it will admit of.

He filled the courts of juſtice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perverſion of the known laws of the kingdom. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous abuſe that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in complaiſance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them, and it cannot be denied that the preſs of England never was more open or free than during his adminiſtration. If he managed the majority of parliament by corruption, which is the main charge againſt him, it is not to be denied that his enemies were often influenced by no very laudable motives, and that the attempt they made, without ſpecifying any charge, to remove him from his majeſty's councils and preſence for ever, was illegal and unjuſt. As to his pacific ſyſtem, it certainly more than repaid

to the nation all that was required to support it, by the encreaſe of her trade and the improvement of her manufactures.

With regard to the king's own perſonal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his miniſter than his favourite, and his majeſty often hinted to him, as Walpole himſelf has been heard to acknowledge, that he was reſponſible for all the meaſures of government. The debates concerning the Spaniſh depredations in the Weſt Indies, and the proofs that were brought to ſupport the complaints of the merchants, made at laſt an impreſſion even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the oppoſition in both houſes of parliament accuſed the miniſter of having by the treaty of Seville, and other negotiations, introduced a branch of the houſe of Bourbon into Italy, and depreſſed the houſe of Auſtria, the antient and natural ally of England. They expoſed, with invincible force of eloquence and reaſoning, the injuſtice and diſgrace as well as loſs ariſing from the Spaniſh depredations, and the neceſſity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert adhered to his pacific ſyſtem, and concluded a ſhameful and indefenſible compromiſe, under the title of a convention, with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Queen Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter, but ſhe died when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the proviſion to which his birth entitled him, and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that it was generally foreſeen that Walpole's power was drawing to a criſis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto Bello; but being a hot, impracticable man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which many thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs, and imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by with-holding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the miniſter, and after a few trying diviſions he retired from the houſe, reſigned his employments, and ſome days after was created earl of Orford.

George II. bore the loſs of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour and poſts of diſtinction upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the

the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to the Auſtrian dominions) through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able, but a headſtrong miniſter, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and, indeed, by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, and his not ſuffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderneſs for his electoral dominions. This partiality created a univerſal flame in England, and the clamour raiſed againſt his lordſhip's meaſures was encreaſed by the duke of Newcaſtle and his brother, lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other miniſters, who reſigned, or offered to reſign their places if lord Carteret ſhould retain his influence in the cabinet. His majeſty was obliged to give way to what he thought was the voice of his people, and he indulged them with accepting the ſervices of ſome gentlemen who never had been conſidered as zealous friends to the houſe of Hanover. After various removals, Mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the treaſury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and conſequently was conſidered as firſt miniſter, or rather the power of the premierſhip was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcaſtle.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt the French and Spaniards, and her enemies ſought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, exceeded the bounds of duty. This naturally ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the pretender, who reſided at Rome, and he agreed that his ſon Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped with a few followers in a frigate to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands of Mull and Skey, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is neceſſary, before we relate the unaccountable ſucceſs of this enterprize, to make a ſhort retroſpect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops, and it was thought that above 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed

in the impracticable attempt of Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negociations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to Great Britain, ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had ſuffered the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war carried on a moſt lucrative trade, nor could they be brought to act againſt the French, till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition, and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which, indeed, had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege, but by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, and miſconduct ſomewhere elſe, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men, though it is generally allowed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England, with an immenſe treaſure, which he had taken from the Spaniards, in his voyage round the world; and the Engliſh commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortreſs of Louiſbourg in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt 1745, when the pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurprized and diſarmed a party of the king's troops in the weſtern Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. I ſhall only add to what I have already ſaid of the progreſs and ſuppreſſion of this rebellion, that it ſpread too great an alarm through England. The government never ſo thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the ſupport of the revolution. The French

and the Jacobite party (for ſuch there was at that time in England) had laid a deep ſcheme for diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger aboliſhed all diſtinctions, and united them in the defence of one intereſt, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their addreſs to the king, to ſupport it, by receiving bank-notes in payment. This ſeaſonable meaſure ſaved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, and the executions that followed, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty and the ſpirit of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and his army from total deſtruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh at ſea, under the commands of the admirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have been wiſhed under rear admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt-Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the ſucceſſes of the French and Engliſh during the war, may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſtries turned their thoughts to peace. The queſtion is not yet decided which party had the greateſt reaſon to deſire it, the French and Spaniards for the immenſe loſſes they had ſuſtained by ſea, or the allies for the diſgraces they had ſuffered by land.

Whatever may be in this, preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, in October, the baſis of which was the reſtitution on both ſides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the Engliſh in this war, from its commencement to the ſigning the preliminaries of peace, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French; and that they loſt during the war, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. Several of the ſhips taken from the Spaniards were immenſely rich; ſo that the balance upon the whole amounted to almoſt two millions, in favour of the Engliſh. Such is the groſs calculation on both ſides, but the conſequences plainly proved that the loſſes of the French and Spaniards muſt have been much

greater. The vaſt fortunes made by private perſons in England all of a ſudden, ſufficiently ſhewed that immenſe ſums had not been brought to the public account; but the greateſt proof was, that next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a ſmall ineffectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have it replaced on the ſame ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums out of the ſinking fund. This was an æra of improvements; Mr. Pelham's candour and rectitude of adminiſtration leaving him few or no enemies in parliament, and he omitted no opportunity of carrying into execution every ſcheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fiſheries; the benefits of which were felt during the ſucceeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent perſon, however, conſidered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than an armed ceſſation of hoſtilities. The French employed themſelves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had laid a deep ſcheme for poſſeſſing themſelves of the Britiſh back ſettlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the Engliſh and the native Indians, in which caſe our colonies muſt have been reduced to a narrow ſlip on the coaſts, without the means of getting any ſubſiſtance but from the mother country. Fortunately for Great-Britain, they diſcloſed their intention by entering upon hoſtilities before they had power to ſupport them.

In the mean while, a new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great-Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000 l. the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died, univerſally lamented, his royal highneſs Frederic prince of Wales. In May 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtile was aboliſhed, and the new ſtile eſtabliſhed, to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubject. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September 1752, and thereafter beginning the year on the firſt of January. In 1753 the famous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the ſubject is a point that is ſtill very queſtionable. The public of England about this time

time ſuſtained an immenſe loſs by the death of Mr. Pelham, who was indiſputably the honeſteſt, wiſeſt, the moſt popular, and therefore the moſt ſucceſsful miniſter England had ever ſeen.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back ſettlements in America, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſending over vaſt bodies of veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced a wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered with eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and two regiments, to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the ſtraits of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it known that hoſtilities were begun, than the public of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 300 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8000 of their beſt ſailors were brought into Britiſh ports. This well-timed meaſure had ſuch an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchant-men, nor to man their ſhips of war, for about two years after near 30,000 French ſeamen were found to be priſoners in England.

In July 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciouſly ſent from England to attack the French and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near Fort du Queſne; but major general Johnſon defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

The Engliſh at this time could not be ſaid to have any firſt miniſter; ſome great men agreed in nothing but in oppoſing the meaſures of the cabinet, which had been undertaken without their conſent. The Engliſh navy in 1755 conſiſted of one ſhip of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 66, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four ſloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; beſides a great number of bomb-ketches, fireſhips, and tenders; a force ſufficient to oppoſe the united maritime ſtrength of all the powers of Europe. Whilſt that of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ſhips then upon the ſtocks, amounted to no more than ſix

ſhips of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, ſix of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by thoſe invincible armaments, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack fort St. Philip there, that admiral Byng, who had been ſent out with a ſquadron at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been baffled if not defeated by their admiral Galiſſoniere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney. The Engliſh were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at thoſe events. The loſs of Minorca was more ſhameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot to death at Portſmouth for cowardice.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of the adminiſtration. He had been long known to be a bold ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be as ſpirited a miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies, under colonel Clive, are almoſt incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the antient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French intereſt, was a few days after his being defeated taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the preſent amazing extent of riches and territory, which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf, and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It ſailed on the 8th of September 1757, and admiral Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the 6th of October to St. Helen's, without the general making an attempt to land on the coaſt of France. He was tried and acquitted without the public murmuring, ſo great an opinion had the people of the miniſter, who, to do him juſtice,

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did not ſuffer a man or a ſhip belonging to the Engliſh army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a moſt powerful army, merely becauſe his Britannic majeſty refuſed to wink at their encroachments in America, the Engliſh parliament, in gratitude, voted large ſupplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation, but he had been ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he found himſelf obliged to lay down his arms, and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took poſſeſſion of that electorate, and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity next to a famine raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion intended by the French, remained ſtill in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758 a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſia; in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000 l. to his Pruſſian majeſty; and alſo voted large ſums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards ſo burdenſome to England, was intended to unite the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George II. with the conſent of his Pruſſian majeſty, pretending that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Cloſterſeven, ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a Pruſſian general, who inſtantly drove them out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the Engliſh had repeatedly inſulted the French coaſts, by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 Britiſh troops, which were afterwards encreaſed to 25,000. A ſharp war enſued. The Engliſh every where performed wonders, and according to the accounts publiſhed in the London Gazette, they were every where victorious, but nothing deciſive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the moſt glorious, perhaps, in the Engliſh annals, in which about 7000 Engliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the concluſion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany,

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The Engliſh bore the expence of the war with chearfulneſs, and applauded Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration, becauſe their glorious ſucceſſes in every other part of the globe demonſtrated that he was in earneſt. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, in Auguſt 1758, reduced and demoliſhed Louiſbourg, in North America, which had been reſtored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the ſcourge of the Britiſh trade, and took five or ſix French ſhips of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Queſne, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into the hands of the Engliſh: acquiſitions that far overbalanced a check which the Engliſh received at Ticonderago, and the loſs of about 300 of the Engliſh guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coaſt of France.

The Engliſh affairs in the Eaſt Indies this year proved equally fortunate, and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pocock engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien Aime, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that they run her on ſhore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occaſion, and the Engliſh only 29 killed, and 89 wounded. That on the third of Auguſt following, he engaged the French fleet a ſecond time, near Pondicherry; when, after a briſk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the ſail they could make, and got ſafe into the road of Pondicherry. The loſs of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded; and that of the Engliſh only 147 killed and wounded. And that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in thoſe parts, marched to beſiege Madraſs, which was defended by the Engliſh colonels Laurence and Draper; and after a briſk cannonade, which laſted till the 16th of February following, the Engliſh having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the iſland of Gorce, on the coaſt of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved ſucceſsful. One of them was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of the French Canada. The command was given, by the miniſter's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed with far ſuperior forces by Moncalm, the beſt and moſt ſuc-

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ceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Moncalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounting incredible difficulties, he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed; and general Monckton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved for brigadier general (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. It is to the honour of the miniſter that Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſo well provided with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that there ſcarcely appeared any chance for its miſcarriage, and thus the French empire in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain: but, on the 18th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtraits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaure of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeſte of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoubtable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night. And on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſée of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros of 74, were burnt. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line, and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invaſion of Great-Britain.

In February 1760, Captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had with three ſloops of war alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, who was the commodore of three

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ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. Every day's gazette added to the accounts of the ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, and the utter ruin of the French finances, which that government did not bluſh publicly to avow. In ſhort, Great-Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main, and had ſucceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own ſafety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and many in England began to conſider it now as foreign to the internal intereſts of Great-Britain. The French again and again ſhewed diſpoſitions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſtry to liſten to their propoſals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation, but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died ſuddenly, full of years and glory, in the 77th of his age and 33d of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could ſeparate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions, and he was ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was juſt rather than generous, and in matters of œconomy, either in his ſtate or his houſhold, he was willing to connive at abuſes, if they had the ſanction of law and cuſtom. By this means thoſe miſmanagements about his court were multiplied to an enormous degree, and even under-clerks in offices amaſſed fortunes ten times greater than their legal ſalaries or perquiſites could raiſe. He was not very acceſſible to converſation, and therefore it was no wonder that having left Germany after he had attained to man's eſtate, he ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole's adminiſtration with great indifference, and ſhewed very little concern at the ſubſequent revolutions among his ſervants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the internal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the faults of his miniſters. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, but placable, fearleſs of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he ſerved when young.

young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by party, the courts of juſtice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

The brighter the national glory was at the time of George II's death, the more arduous was the province of his ſucceſſor, George III. Born and bred in England, he had no prepoſſeſſions but for his native country, and an excellent education gave him true notions of its intereſts, therefore he was not to be impoſed upon by flattering appearances. He knew that neither the finances, nor the population of England could furniſh men and money for ſupplying the neceſſities of the war, ſucceſsful as it was, and yet he was obliged to continue it, ſo as to bring it to a happy period. He choſe for his firſt miniſter the earl of Bute, whom he had known ever ſince he began to know himſelf, and among the firſt acts of his reign was to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry in the Eaſt Indies to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monckton, lord Rollo, and Sir James Dowglaſs; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms, with inconceivable rapidity.

By this time the famous family compact among all the branches of the Bourbon family had been concluded, and it was found neceſſary to declare war againſt Spain, who having been hitherto no principals in the quarrel, had ſcandalouſly abuſed their neutrality in favour of the French. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pocock, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces, and the vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt Indies. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spaniards,

niards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla in the Eaſt Indies, by general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the Britiſh arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended is not for me to decide. It certainly embarraſſed his Britannic majeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now reſumed, and the neceſſity of concluding one was acknowledged by all his majeſty's miniſters and privy counſellors excepting two. Many difficulties were ſurmounted, but the romantic and uſeleſs war in Germany was continued between the French and Engliſh with greater fury than ever. The enemy, however, at laſt granted ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible and adequate to the occaſion. A ceſſation of arms took place in Germany, and in all other quarters, and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was ſolemnly proclaimed at the uſual places in Weſtminſter and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met with the approbation of a majority of both houſes.

By this treaty, the extenſive province of Canada, with the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great Britain; alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this ſide the Miſſiſippi, except the town of New Orleans, with a ſmall diſtrict round it, was ſurrendered to us by France and Spain, in conſideration of our reſtoring to Spain the iſland of Cuba; and to France the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Deſirade; and in conſideration of our granting the French the two ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretenſions to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the iſlands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the ſettlement of Senegal, by which we engroſs the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a ſmall iſland of little value. The article that relates to the Eaſt Indies, was dictated by the directors of the Engliſh

company, which reſtores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they ſhall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of Manilla was reſtored to the Spaniards; but they granted to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewiſe, the French reſtored to us the iſland of Minorca, and we reſtored to them the iſland of Belleiſle. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent in marches and counter-marches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but, at the expence of 30 millions ſterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party ſit down at the end of the war in the ſame ſituation in which they began it. And peace was reſtored between Portugal and Spain, both ſides to be upon the ſame footing as before the war.

Thus ended a war (ſuch were the effects of unanimity at home) the moſt brilliant in the Britiſh annals. No national prejudices, nor party diſputes then exiſted. The ſame truly Britiſh ſpirit by which the miniſter was animated, fired the breaſt of the ſoldier and ſeaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages, and the monied man, pleaſed with the aſpect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the miniſter, and courage of the people, chearfully opened his purſe. The incredible ſums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raiſed by a few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice, for the ſervice of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, was no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe, than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

George William Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, September 8, 1761, to the princeſs Sophia Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have iſſue;

1. George Auguſtus Frederick, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12, 1762.
2. Prince Frederick, born Auguſt 16, 1763, elected biſhop of Oſnaburg February 27, 1764.
3. Prince William Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765.
4. Princeſs Charlotte, born September 29, 1766.
5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.
6. Princeſs Auguſta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.

Auguſta, daughter to Frederic II. duke of Saxe Gotha, now princeſs dowager of Wales, was born November 30, 1719.

Her iſſue by the late prince of Wales:

1. Her royal highneſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737, married to the hereditary prince of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, January 16, 1764.
2. His preſent majeſty.

3. Prince

WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has distinctions in language, and manners, I have, in conformity with the common custom, assigned it a separate article.

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch are descendants, according to the best antiquaries, of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiscuously used by the antient Britons) that is, Strangers. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers by those who understand it.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welsh or antient Britons were shut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country, than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See ENGLAND.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in Scotland and the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs, and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish. Holywell contains an excellent mineral water

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3. Prince William Henry, duke of Gloucester, born November 25, 1743.

4. Prince Henry Frederic, duke of Cumberland, born November 7, 1745.

5. Princess Caroline Matilda, born July 22, 1751; married at St. James's Oct. 1, 1766, by proxy, to Christian VII. king of Denmark.

His late majesty's issue by queen Caroline, now living:

1. Princess Amelia Sophia, born June 10, 1711.

2. Princess Mary, born March 5, 1723-4, married to the prince of Hesse Cassel, July 19, 1740.

water, the virtues of which are attributed by the common people to the female martyr St. Winifred.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endleſs to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Carnarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery, and partly in Cardiganſhire, are the moſt famous; and it was probably by their mountainous ſituation that the natives made ſo noble and long a ſtruggle againſt the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } In theſe particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horſes are ſmaller, but can endure vaſt fatigue, and their black cattle are ſmall likewiſe, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. As for the other productions of Wales, ſee England and Scotland. Some very promiſing mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron, have been diſcovered in Wales. The Welch ſilver may be known by its being ſtamped with the oſtrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } The inhabitants of Wales are ſuppoſed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the neceſſaries, and many of the comforts of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in ſome years ago about forty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if poſſible, more jealous of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible, but their anger ſoon abates, and they are remarkable for fidelity and attachment, eſpecially to their own countrymen. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity, but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their antient hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more antient, and better atteſted than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who lived about the year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the time of the reformation, and clearly evinces that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch the deſcendants of the antient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to have influenced the antient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independency, for which reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacre of the bards, an inhumanity which was characteriſtical of that ambitious prince. The Welch

may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by keeping up their antient hoſpitality, and a ſtrict adherence to their antient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtream of faſhion. We are not, however, to imagine that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpeak the Engliſh language, though numbers of them underſtand the Welch.

RELIGION.] I have already mentioned the maſſacre of the Welch clergy by Auguſtine, the popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would not conform to the Romiſh ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their favour, by their pretended power of abſolving them from crimes, and the Welch, when their antient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for, and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a vaſt diſcouragement to religion and learning, but the meaſures taken by the ſociety for propagating chriſtian knowledge has effectually removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749 a hundred and forty-two ſchoolmaſters were employed in removing from place to place for the inſtruction of the inhabitants, and their ſcholars amounted to 72,264. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more, perhaps, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vaſt expence bibles, common-prayers, and other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis to the poorer ſort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-ſchool.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Wales is that of the church of England, but their common people in many places are ſo tenacious of their antient cuſtoms, that they retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome antient families among them, are ſtill Roman catholics. It is likewiſe ſaid, that Wales abounds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe.

FOR BISHOPRICS (See England.) We are however to obſerve, that in former times Wales contained more biſhoprics than it does now, and about the time of the conqueſt of England, the religious foundations there, far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was the ſeat of learning when England knew not the uſe of letters. It ſuffered, as I have already hinted, an eclipſe, by their repeated maſſacres

maſſacres of the clergy and bards. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales, when it was perſecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch diſpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden, is thought to have been a Welchman, and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men of the ſame country, who flouriſhed before the reformation. The diſcovery of the famous king Arthur's, and his wife's burying place, was owing to ſome lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter was Hugh Broughton and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewiſe a Welchman, as was that great ſtateſman and prelate, the lord keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York, in the time of king Charles I. After all, I muſt be of opinion, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwithſtanding all that Dr. Hickes, and other antiquaries, have ſaid to the contrary, furniſhed the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua.) I muſt not however omit, the excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With regard to modern Welchmen of learning, they are ſo numerous, that it would be unjuſt to particulariſe any. It is ſufficient to ſay that their clergy are now excellent ſcholars, and the Welch make as good a figure in literature as any of their neighbours. The Welch Pater-noſter is as follows.

Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, ſanctaiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoedd: dyro i ni heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn oes oeſoedd. Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable, either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Angleſey, and has a harbour for ſhips. Brecknock trades in

cloathing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs and aldermen, who wear scarlet gowns, and other ensigns of state. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen, and part of the county is so fertile, and pleasant, that it is called Little England. As to the other towns of Wales, I shall not mention them. I am however to observe, that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country, than it is at present; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old castles are so strongly built, and so well situated, that they might be turned into strong forts, by a little expence; witness the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its castles are stupendously large; and in some the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. The architecture of others are doubtful, and some appear to be partly British, and partly Roman. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-Stone; but the remains of the druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the isle of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the druidical rites and religion. To give a description of the Roman altars, antiquities and utensils, which have been discovered in Wales, would be endless; but future antiquaries may make great discoveries from them. Among the other artificial curiosities, is king Offa's dyke, which is said to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-castle in Glamorganshire, is said to have been the largest in Great-Britain, excepting Windsor, and the remains of it shew it to have been a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other over-hangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Some curious coins of Welch princes are said to be found in the cabinets of the curious, but I do not find that they have been very serviceable in ascertaining the ancient history of the country.

The chief natural curiosities are as follow. At a small village, called Newton in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring nigh the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the sea. In Merionethshire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for

its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Carnarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmooer, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock ſeems ready every minute to cruſh them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and, till very lately when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road, full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular meaſurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milfordhaven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire, but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late conſiderable ſums have been granted by parliament for its fortifications. It lies under two capital diſadvantages. The firſt is, that by making it the rendezvous of all the Engliſh marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally deſtroy the ſhipping, however ſtrongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The ſame objection however lies to every harbour that contains ſhips of war and merchantmen. The ſecond, and perhaps the chief diſadvantage it lies under, is the ſtrong oppoſition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it muſt meet with in parliament, from the numerous Corniſh and Weſt-country members, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly leſſened by the diſuſe of Plymouth and Portſmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures, and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and even Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there were ordained four ſeveral circuits, for the adminiſtration of juſtice in the ſaid ſhires, each of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the chief juſtice of Cheſter

has under his jurisdiction the three several shires of Flint, Denbigh and Montgomery. The shires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Anglesey, are under the justices of North Wales. Those of Caermarthen, Pembrokeshire and Cardigan, have also their justices, as have likewise those of Radnor, Brecknock and Glamorgan. By the eighteenth of queen Elizabeth, one other justice-assistant was ordained to the former justices; so that now every one of the said four circuits has two justices, viz. one chief justice, and a second justice-assistant.

Revenues.] As to the revenues, I have already mentioned the land-tax, and the crown has a certain, though small property, in the product of the silver and lead-mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales for his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000 l. a year.

Arms.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from those of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of ostrich feathers, was occasioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is *Ich dien*, I serve. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar saint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is wore on his day, the 1st of March, and for which various reasons have been assigned.

History.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of the Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people cut out so much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely subdued, though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. Though the Saxons, as I have already observed, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes, and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Deemetia, or South Wales; Povesia, or Powis-Land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppose them. They made, however, many vigorous brave attempts against the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties, and even the

English

Engliſh hiſtorians admit the injuſtice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a handle for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Griffyn, having put himſelf under ſubjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an irreſiſtible army at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welch however made ſeveral efforts under young Llewellin, but at laſt, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged, and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen to be delivered in Carnarvon caſtle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England becomes now the ſame. It is proper, however, to obſerve, that the kings of England have always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch, with particular marks of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow, and a regular council with a preſident was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

IRELAND.

Situation, boundaries, and extent.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longeſt day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longeſt day is 17½ hours.

The extent, or ſuperficial content of this kingdom is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north, to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the eaſt part of Down, to the weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth, 160 miles, and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 159 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the paſſage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than twenty miles.

NAME AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN. More conjectures as to the Latin (Hibernia) Iriſh (Erin) as well as the Engliſh name of this iſland, have been formed than the ſubject deſerves. It probably takes it riſe from a Phœnician or Gallic term, ſignifying the fartheſt habitation weſtward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five circuits, and ſome into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter. I ſhall follow the laſt diviſion, as being the moſt common, and likewiſe the moſt antient.

	Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Leinſter, 12 counties.	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
	Eaſt Meath	Trim
	Weſt Meath	Mullinger
	King's County	Phillipſtown
	Queen's County	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Kildare
	Carlow	Carlow

	Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Ulſter, 9 Counties.	Down	Down
	Armagh	Charlemont
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan
	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Omagh
	Fermanagh	Enniſkillen
	Donegall	Donegall
Connaught, 6 Count.	Leitrim	Leitrim
	Roſcommon	Roſcommon
	Mayo	Ballinrobe
	Sligo	Sligo
	Galway	Galway
	Clare	Ennis
Munſter, 5 Counties.	Cork	Cork
	Kerry	Tralee
	Limerick	Limerick
	Tipperary	Clonmel
	Waterford	Waterford.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL. The climate of Ireland differs little from that of England, with which it would almoſt perfectly agree, were the ſoil equally improved. Uncultivated ſwamps, bogs, and foreſts, and uninhabited banks of rivers, naturally produce fogs and an unwholſome thickneſs of air, as is the caſe with ſome parts of England itſelf; but upon the whole the air of the cultivated part of Ireland is as mild and ſalubrious, and as friendly to human nature as that of England; ſome have thought that it is even more ſo.

The ſoil of Ireland in general is fruitful, perhaps beyond that of England itſelf, when properly cultivated. Paſturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but till of late tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep. The Iriſh wool is excellent, but many have thought that the prohibition of exporting it to any other nation but England, is of detriment to both kingdoms, becauſe it encourages the inhabitants to ſmuggle it into France. The prodigious, and, indeed, incredible ſupplies of ſalt proviſions (fiſh excepted)

excepted) ſhipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, are proofs ſcarcely to be exhibited in any other country, of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil. As to the ſeaſons of Ireland, they differ little from thoſe of Great Britain, in the ſame latitude. I muſt not here forget that Ireland is remarkable for breeding and nouriſhing no venomous creatures.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES. Nor has nature been leſs favourable to Ireland in the numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours and creeks, which enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks ſpreading quite acroſs it, ſouth of Killaloe, but this might be remedied by a ſhort canal, at the expence of 10, or 12,000 l. and communications might alſo be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Colerain, the Boyne falls into St. George's channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a ſpacious harbour. The Barrow, the Noer, and the Suir, water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, they fall into the channel at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country, beyond any other in Europe, the beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kilmare, Dingle, Shannon-mouth, Galway, Sligoe, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fiſh; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Though thoſe loughs in the main have but few properties that are not in common with the like bodies of water in other countries, yet they have given riſe to many traditionary accounts among the natives, which diſfigure and

disgrace their true history, and even modern geographers have been more copious on that head than either truth or the subject can admit of. The Irish are so fond of loughs, that, like the Scots, they often give that term to inlets of the sea.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom, one in particular (See the Map) reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic ocean. In surveying the grounds for this canal, however, it was found necessary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which, from the spungy nature of that soil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in strengthening the sides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Irish language has been more happy in distinguishing the size of mountains than perhaps any other. A knock signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; a slieve marks a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending and continued in several ridges; a beinn or bin signifies a pinnacle or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. Ireland, however, when compared with some other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Ifeah, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom, of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular heighth of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous histories that are annexed to some of them. Some of these mountains contain in their bowels beds of mines, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief forests in Ireland lie in Leinster, the King's and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulster there are great forests, and in the county of Donegall and in the north part of Tyrone; also in the county of Fermanagh, along Loughlin Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is some good timber, and the oak is esteemed as good as any of the English growth, and as fit for ship-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late discoveries. Several contain silver and lead, and it is said that 30 pounds of their lead ore produce a pound of silver; but the richest silver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine

have

have been discovered at Tipperary, as likewise iron ore, and excellent free-stone for building. Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke, and it contains a christalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the well known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the same as in England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moss, which are of vast service for firing, where wood and coals are scarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland, but they are now almost exterminated by their wolf dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, shaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as spaniels. What I have already observed about the Irish exportation of salt provisions, sufficiently evinces the prodigious numbers of hogs, sheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are said to be more plentiful there than in England. The fish that are caught upon the coasts of Ireland are likewise in greater plenty than on those of England, and some of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Ireland is said to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I suspect that the calculation is over-charged by near half a million. As it is of great consequence to ascertain as near as possible the numbers of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we shall give them according to the best accounts, as they stood in the four provinces in 1733.

	Protestant families.		Popish families.
In Ulster	— 62,620	—	— 38,459
Leinster	— 25,238	—	— 92,424
Munster	— 13,337	—	— 106,407
Connaught	— 4,299	—	— 44,133
	Total 105,494		Total 281,423

Which, at five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and seven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 souls. I am apt to think, when we consider the waste of war by sea and

and land, and the vaſt emigrations of the Iriſh to Britain, the Britiſh colonies, and other nations; that the above calculation may nearly ſerve for the preſent times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly riſen on the ſide of proteſtantiſm; and in ſome late debates in the Iriſh parliament it has been aſſerted that the number of inhabitants of Ireland amount to three millions.

The old Iriſh, or, as they are termed by the proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, are generally repreſented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering ſort of people. Impatient of abuſe, and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections, but quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient of hardſhips. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbariſms are more eaſy to be accounted for from accidental than natural cauſes. By far the greateſt number of them are papiſts, and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who govern them with an abſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ignorance. They alſo lie under many legal diſabilities, which in their own country diſcourages the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they are diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their ſurnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon: formerly the *O* was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves upon the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of the lateſt airs are lively, and when ſung by an Iriſhman, extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this cuſtom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſed even in the ſkirts of Dublin, which one could wiſh to ſee aboliſhed. And their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, dancing to the bagpipe, but more often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger. But, as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland, except their tyrannical landlords or leaſeholders, who ſqueeze the poor without mercy. The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble

the antient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabbins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve the double purpoſes of accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food. For however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor natives ſeldom taſte butcher's meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robuſt, and hearty, ſcarcely know the uſe of cloaths, and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance upon the roads in that primitive manner.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands are in a manner loſt to the community and to themſelves, who, if they had an equal chance with their neighbours of being inſtructed in the real principles of Chriſtianity, inured and incouraged to induſtry and labour, and obedience to their ſovereign, would add conſiderable ſtrength to government. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themſelves of the uncomfortable ſituation of the Iriſh at home, by alluring them to enter their ſervice, and in this they have hitherto been aſſiſted by prieſts and jeſuits, whoſe intereſt it is to infuſe into the minds of their credulous diſciples an averſion to the Britiſh government; but we have now the pleaſing proſpect of a happy reformation among theſe people, from the numerous Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools, lately eſtabliſhed over the kingdom, which inſtitution will undoubtedly ſtrike deeper at the root of popery than all the endeavours of the Britiſh monarchs to reduce them.

The deſcendants of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince the conqueſt of Ireland by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous, form the wealthieſt part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and northern coaſts, where moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on, eſpecially Belfaſt, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter, which, though the pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin, and its neighbourhood, by far the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots, in the reign of James I. and other preſbyterians, who fled from perſecution in that country in ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves, and eſtabliſhed that

great

great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth the linen manufactory, which they have ſince carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection. From this ſhort review it appears that the preſent inhabitants are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt upon the interior and weſtern parts; the deſcendants of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity. Thirdly, as I have already obſerved, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who like the others are ſo zealouſly attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require ſome ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are ſo thoroughly conſolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry and better ſort of the Iriſh nation in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known, but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of Ireland is the ſame with that of England. I have already obſerved, that among the bulk of the people, in the moſt uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent proteſtantiſm from making a very rapid progreſs there in towns and communities. How far it may be the intereſt of England that ſome kind of balance between the two religions ſhould be kept up, I ſhall not here enquire.

Ireland contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly preſbyterians, anabaptiſts, quakers, and methodiſts, who are all of them connived at and tolerated. Great efforts have been made ever ſince the days of James I. in erecting free-ſchools for civilizing and converting the Iriſh papiſts to proteſtantiſm. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh proteſtant working-ſchools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh; and no country in the world can ſhew greater public ſpirited efforts than have been made by the government of Ireland, ſince that time, for theſe purpoſes.

ARCH-

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are four, Armagh, Caſhel, Dublin, and Tuam.

The biſhops are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Drumore, Elphin, Kildare, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limeric, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The uſage of the Iriſh language occaſions among the common people, who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general, and even among the better ſort who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] If we are to believe the fabulous accounts of Ireland, learning flouriſhed there while ſhe was dormant in all the other parts of the globe. The truth is, that the Iriſh writers, in ſeveral branches of learning, arts, and ſciences, are equal to thoſe of their neighbours. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to literature itſelf. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama: and to particularize other Iriſh writers of learning and genius, many of whom are living at this day, would far exceed my bounds.

UNIVERSITIES.] Ireland contains but one univerſity (if a college can be called ſuch) which is that of Dublin, founded by queen Elizabeth, under the title of the College of the holy and undivided Trinity, near Dublin, with a power of conferring degrees of batchelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. At preſent it conſiſts of a provoſt, ſeven ſenior, thirteen junior fellows, and ſeventy ſcholars of the houſe, who have maintenance upon the foundation. The viſitors are the chancellor or vice chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } I have already mentioned the wolf-dogs in Ireland, and her exemption from all venomous animals. The Iriſh goſ-hawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. The mooſe-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, their horns being ſometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one pair has been found near

eleven

eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giant's Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He ſays, "that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet further upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is like that loſt in the water.

"The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about a foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurprizing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

"But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurprizing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles."

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and ſeveral pamphlets have been employed in deſcribing them. As to the

artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone towers, found upon the coaſts, and ſuppoſed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians, who made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light-houſes or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is in magnitude and the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions; much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marſeilles, and is ſuppoſed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated 270 miles north-weſt of London, and ſixty miles weſt from Holyhead, in North Wales, the uſual ſtation of the paſſage veſſels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gaves name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both ſides, which form ſpacious quays, where veſſels below the firſt bridge load and unload before the merchants doors and warehouſes. A ſtranger upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about ſeven miles broad, and in ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably ſurprized with the beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes no great appearance. The increaſe of Dublin, within twenty years laſt paſt, is incredible, and it is generally ſuppoſed that 4000 houſes have been added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. This city in its appearance bears a near reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but the new ſtreets are more elegant and better planned than thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ſea veſſels as far as the cuſtomhouſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall, when compared to the Thames at London. Over it are two handſome bridges, lately built of ſtone, in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and three others that have little to recommend them. Hitherto the centre of Dublin towards the cuſtomhouſe was crouded and inconvenient for commercial purpoſes; but of late a new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant reſides. A new exchange is building, the firſt ſtone of which was laid by lord Townſhend, the then lord lieutenant, and ſeveral other uſeful undertakings and embelliſhments are in agitation.

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The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt and compleateſt building of the kind in Europe.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stevens Green is a moſt extenſive ſquare, being one mile in circumference. It is partly laid out in gravel walks, like St. James's park, with trees on each ſide, in which may be ſeen, in fine weather, a reſort of as much beauty, gaiety, and finery, as at any of the public places in England. Many of the houſes round the green are very ſtately, but a want of uniformity is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near Stevens Green, now laid out and partly built. The houſes being lofty, uniform, and carried on with ſtone as far as the firſt floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath.

The front of Trinity college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland ſtone in the fineſt taſte.

The parliament houſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at the expence of 40,000 l. This ſuperb pile is in general of the Ionic order, and is at this day juſtly accounted one of the foremoſt architectural beauties. The portico in particular is, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts have alſo many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age can boaſt of, is the building a ſtone wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord mayor, &c. the ſame as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the 24 companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged

to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchiſes. Upon this occaſion the citizens vie with each other, in ſhow and oſtentation, which is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſequences to many of their families. In Dublin are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. In this city are 18 pariſh churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch proteſtants, 7 preſbyterian meeting-houſes, 1 for methodiſts, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-in hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunaticks, built by the famous dean Swift, who himſelf died a lunatic; and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner. And indeed whatever way a ſtranger turns himſelf in this city, he will perceive a ſpirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility in Ireland, keep pace with thoſe erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it muſt be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively ſpeaking, has expended ſuch ſums as the grants of the Iriſh parliament, which has been, and continues to be, the life and ſoul of whatever is carried on; witneſs the many noble erections, churches, hoſpitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, and other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been matter of ſurprize, that with all this ſpirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be claſſed among the ſecond order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn that deſerves that name. This may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for by the long, and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike roads to Portpatric in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland may by this means become more frequented, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the moſt luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with a ſameneſs that runs through the whole: but in thoſe countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds, the extenſive lakes, enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation,

hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleasing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently present themselves in various forms and shapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleasing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough or unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles south-west of Dublin, and contains above 8100 houses, inhabited chiefly by protestants. Its haven is deep, and well sheltered from all winds; but small vessels only come up to its quay, and stand about seven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter shipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee islands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. Kinsale is a populous and strong town, with an excellent harbour, and considerable commerce and shipping: and it is, moreover, occasionally a station for the navy royal; for which end this port is furnished with proper naval officers and storekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and shipping. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the west side of the town is a citadel. Limeric is a handsome, populous, commercial, strong city, and lies on both sides the Shannon.

Belfast, a large seaport and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen water, where it falls into Carrickfergus bay. Downpatrick has a flourishing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) is by some deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and castle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is most usually called) stands on Lough-Foyl, is a strong little city, having some linen manufactures, with some commerce and shipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is situated so near to Scotland, that they are in sight of each others coasts. Donegal, the county-town of the same name (otherwise called the county of Tyrconnel) is a place of some trade; as is likewise Enniskilling. All which last mentioned places, and many more (though less considerable ones) are chiefly, and most industriously, employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vast annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewise to render the money constantly drawn from Ireland into England by her absentees, less grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no ſtrong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has ſeveral forts and garriſons, that ſerve as comfortable ſinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore fort, Cork, Limeric, Kinſale, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carricfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of theſe forts is furniſhed with deputy governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary proviſions from the government.

It cannot be pretended that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with many public edifices, that can compare with thoſe that are to be found in countries where ſovereigns and their courts reſide, but it has many elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The parliament houſe, caſtle, Eſſex-bridge, and ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent, and elegant pieces of architecture, and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland. The Iriſh nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of England in the magnificent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjuſt, where there are ſo many equal in taſte and magnificence, to particularize any. In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I muſt not forget the numerous barracks, where the ſoldiers are lodged, equally to the eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] What I have ſaid of England under this head, is in a great meaſure applicable to Ireland. Her chief exports conſiſt of linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, which are encouraged by the Engliſh government. Wool and bay yarn are by law allowed to be exported to England only, but great quantities of both are ſmuggled into other countries. The other exports are horſes and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, ſome tanned leather, calf ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, in no great proportion, copper-ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins, and furr, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, ſalmon, and a few other particulars.

The Iriſh in general complain of the vaſt diſadvantages under which their country lies, from that prohibition which does not ſuffer them to cultivate to the full their woollen and iron manufactures, or to make the beſt of their natural ſituation and harbours. They even complain that the benefits of their linen manufacture are now greatly abridged by the vaſt progreſs made in the ſame by the Scots, and repeated attempts have been made to prove that their commercial diſcouragements are detrimental to England herſelf, and beneficial to her

her natural enemies. Whatever truth may be in this complaint, it is certain that the Iriſh have carried their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury, to an amazing height, and that their lords lieutenants, and their court, have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, making uſe of no other.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe I know none in Ireland, as the bankers cannot be admitted as ſuch; neither can the Dublin ſociety for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, which was incorporated in 1750. The linen hall, however, that is erected at Dublin, is under as juſt and nice regulations as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland is ſtill a diſtinct, though a dependent ſubordinate kingdom. It was only entitled the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and the king's ſtile was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, Lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king, which is recognized by act of parliament in the ſame reign. But, as England and Scotland are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; ſo England and Ireland are, on the other hand, diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For after the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſmore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, ſtill continues in a ſtate of dependence, it muſt neceſſarily conform to, and be obliged by ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thinks proper to preſcribe.

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it became neceſſary, ſome years ago, to declare how that matter really ſtood: and, therefore, by ſtatute 6th of George I. it is declared, that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto; and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is ſent over from England by the king, whom he repreſents, but his power is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publickly read in the council-chamber, and having taken the uſual oaths before the lord chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before

him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſergeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and he never appears publickly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence, with reſpect to his authority, his train and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, earls, biſhops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ; and generally ſits once every ſecond year. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords and commons. Of the former, many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers or commons of Great Britain; a few are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amount to about three hundred. Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. The laws are made by the houſe of lords and commons, after which they are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are alſo in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high-ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant. From this general view it appears that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

Revenues.] In Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to particular purpoſes; but there is beſides this a private revenue ariſing from the ancient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and felony, priſage of wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the ſame unlimited property that a ſubject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland is ſuppoſed at preſent to exceed half a million ſterling, of which the Iriſh complain greatly that about 70,000 l. is granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees. Very large ſums are alſo granted by their own parliament for more valuable purpoſes, the improvement of their country and civilizing the people; ſuch as the inland navigation, bridges, highways,

highways, churches, premiums, proteſtant ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wiſdom and patriotiſm of that parliament.

And it is alſo a happy circumſtance for the Iriſh, that the revenues neceſſary for the ſupport of their government, and other purpoſes, are raiſed with ſo much eaſe as to be ſcarcely felt by the people. Their lands are not ſaddled with heavy taxes, nor their trade with foreign nations cramped by innumerable duties. Hence proceed the amazing low prices of almoſt every article of general conſumption. Good claret wine is ſold in the metropolis of the kingdom at two ſhillings a bottle, and other liquors proportionably cheap. Butcher's meat, though now on the riſe, is ſold at two pence per pound; turkies at twenty pence, and other poultry at a trifling expence. Soap and candles ſo low as to tempt coaſting veſſels to ſmuggle them into Britain. In the interior parts, butchers meat is ſold at one penny farthing per pound; large fowls at three pence each. And that the taxation upon inland trade ſits eaſy, appears from the cheapneſs of almoſt every article fabricated there. Newſpapers of a large ſize are ſold at a halfpenny, and advertiſements of a moderate length are inſerted for ſixpence. Such was the happy ſituation of Great Britain before the commencement of that load of debt, contracted in conſequence of our foreign connections, and fruitleſs campaigns in Germany and Flanders.

COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denominations and the like fabric with thoſe of England, only an Engliſh ſhilling paſſes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the antient coins of the Iriſh were, is at preſent a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Ireland maintains and pays an army of 16,000 men, who have been often of ſingular ſervice to England. The reader, from the ſketch I have already given of the population of Ireland, may eaſily form an eſtimate of the number of fighting men in the kingdom. Thoſe parts of Ireland that are moſt uncultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little ſenſe either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them in order, witneſs the late inſurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were inſtigated by their prieſts. It does not, however, appear that the bulk of the Iriſh catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his deſcent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the pretender in the laſt rebellion.

HISTORY.] The Iriſh monks have formed a more regular plan of antient hiſtory, for their own country, than is to be

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met with in other countries, and with ſuch plauſibility, that it has been adopted by men of conſiderable learning. They have carried up a ſucceſſion of great, wiſe, and learned kings, almoſt to the time of the flood, and they have made Ireland flouriſh in all the arts and ſciences, eſpecially thoſe of government, long before they were known in Egypt, or Greece. Writers, however, after the Auguſtan age, have mentioned the Iriſh, as being no better than ſavages, and the moſt credible of the modern hiſtorians, ſpeak of them as being, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, a nation of Barbarians, though it may be admitted that before this period, ſome of their monks and clergy, who had travelled into other parts of Europe, were holy and learned men.

That the northern parts of Ireland were peopled from the weſt of Scotland, as being a far more inviting ſoil, is more than probable, and it is likely that emigrations from other parts of Europe, might mingle with the aboriginal Iriſh; but hiſtory gives us no ſure lights, as to thoſe matters. Sir James Ware, the beſt of the Iriſh antiquaries, and a man of great learning and candour, ſpeaks with high contempt of the Iriſh, before they were converted to Chriſtianity, by St. Patric, a Scotchman, who died in 493. After this they were occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England, but in the year 795 and 798 the Danes and Normans, or as they were called, the Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſts of Ireland, and were the firſt who erected ſtone edifices in that kingdom. The habitations of the Iriſh, till that time, were of hurdles covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and a very few of ſolid timber. The natives, however, defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford and Cork, but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeem to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power, and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him King of great part of Ireland. It is certain, that Dublin was about that time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the Iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

Though the uſe of letters had been by this time introduced into Ireland, yet its hiſtory is ſtill very confuſed. We know, however, that it was divided amongſt ſeveral petty princes, and that Henry II. of England, provoked at their piracies, and their aſſiſting his enemies, by the inſtigation of the Pope, had reſolved to ſubdue them. A fair pretext offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, and

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an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderic O'Connor, (who it ſeems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him upon taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England for himſelf, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cauſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. Thoſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conqueſt of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendants of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which, after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers, but Mac Turkil the Daniſh king eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtates in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh, about the ſame time, to the amount of about 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs, and going over to England he appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hand all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returning with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his Engliſh nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulſter, but the great king Roderic O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſequently he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the eſtates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin,

Dublin, as near as poſſible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free cuſtoms, ſays their charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flouriſh. Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh almoſt with as much eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards, and for much the ſame reaſons, the rude, and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of Lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves hateful to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I. was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay much regard to the affairs of Ireland, but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan, of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties. I find, however, that the deſcendants of the antient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own ſtates; and indeed this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of James I. The unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars, and captivity, gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during his reign; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland, but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh intereſt in Ireland, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies, and being ſupported by his brother in perſon, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and he was at laſt defeated and killed by Bermingham the Engliſh general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no incon-

inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, however, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progreſs, but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, at this time, that the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances they complained of was, that the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh looked upon his preſence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he behaved ſo as to entirely win their affections. In 1399, Richard being then deſpotic in England, undertook a freſh expedition into Ireland to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army again ſtruck the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition that the duke of Lancaſter landed in England, and Richard, upon his return, finding himſelf deſerted, and that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm affection for the houſe of York, and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cauſe. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile them to his title, as duke of Lancaſter, and the Iriſh readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious at firſt of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithſtanding his plauſible pretences to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon of Edward IV. He was, however, at laſt recognized as king by the Iriſh, and in the preceding pages the reader may learn the event of his hiſtory. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effect, during the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other, but they were

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tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and who was won over by the emperor, but was at laſt hanged at Tyburn. After this, the houſe of Auſtria found their account, in their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542 James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions on the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to ſpeak the truth, it was ſomewhat ſurprizing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government than ever had been known, and even O Neil, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The Pope, however, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money, and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable that the reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary, but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman Catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs, and the Pope, and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are well known in the Engliſh hiſtory.

The lord-deputy Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Engliſhman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing Tyrone priſoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, ſhewn to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehen-

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ſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ireland. James I. confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond ſeas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608, they inſtigated Sir Calim O'Dogharty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels which paſſed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, veſted in the crown 511,465 acres, in the ſeveral counties of Donnegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that proteſtant plantation in the north of Ireland, which now, from the moſt rebellious province of the kingdom, is the moſt quiet and reformed.

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and neceſſary they might be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman-catholics in general, were influenced by their prieſts to hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacring all the Engliſh proteſtants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy diſſentions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the Engliſh government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They however partly executed, in 1641, their horrid ſcheme of maſſacre: but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſtant writers, ſome of whom have mounted the number of the ſufferers to 40,000; other accounts ſpeak of 10,000 or 12,000, and ſome have even diminiſhed that number. What followed in conſequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Iriſh papiſts upon themſelves, belongs to the hiſtory of England. It is certain that they ſmarted ſo ſeverely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucceſſor and brother, even after the Revolution took place, found an aſylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that by the aſſiſtance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that William ever gained in perſon. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undiſci-

plined rabble, but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It must be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too soon for a brave man. The forfeitures that fell to the crown on account of the Irish rebellions and the Revolution, are almost incredible; and had the acts of parliament which gave them away been strictly enforced, Ireland must have been peopled with British inhabitants. But many political reasons occurred for not driving the Irish to despair. The friends of the Revolution and the protestant religion were sufficiently gratified out of the forfeited estates. Too many of the Roman-catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance should be preserved between the Roman-catholic and the protestant interest.

It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorously into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wisdom of the above considerations. The lenity of the measures pursued in regard to the Irish Roman-catholics, and the great pains taken for the instruction of their children, with the progress which knowledge and the arts have made in that country, have diminished the popish interest so much, that the Irish protestants have of late disputed many points of their dependency. The spirit of industry has enabled the Irish to know their own strength and importance, to which some accidental circumstances have concurred. All her ports are now opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great-Britain. And of late years acts of parliament have been made occasionally for permitting the importation of salt beef, pork, butter, cattle and tallow, from Ireland to Great-Britain.

How far the late act for rendering parliaments in Ireland octennial * may operate to its benefit, is as yet impossible to be determined: in all appearance, it will create a very material alteration in the civil policy of that kingdom, and will prove to be by no means for the benefit of that independency upon England which is so much the idol of the Irish patriots. It is likewise to be apprehended, that the octennial returns of general elections, may have a fatal effect upon the morals of the labouring people, as is too often seen in England, where industry flourishes most in those places (witness Manchester, Birmingham, and Sheffield) which send no member to the British parliament.

* Before this act took place, members, once chosen, sat in the house of commons during life; so that there were no new parliaments, except upon the accession of the prince to the throne.

I might here conclude the geography and hiſtory of Great-Britain and Ireland, were it not that ſeveral ſmaller iſlands are under the allegiance of the crown of England, and having local privileges and diſtinctions, could not be comprehended under a more general head. In treating of them therefore I ſhall deviate from my common method, but obſerve brevity as much as the ſubject will permit.

ISLE OF MAN.

THIS is not the Mona mentioned by Tacitus. Some think that it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among) becauſe lying in St. George's Channel, it is at an equal diſtance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland. Its length from north to ſouth is about thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is fifty-four degrees, ſixteen minutes, north. It is ſaid, that on a clear day, the three Britannic kingdoms may be ſeen from this iſland. The air here is wholeſome, and the climate, only making allowance for the ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other reſpects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champain fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulſe. The ridge of mountains which as it were divides the iſland, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants have good ſizeable horſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound with ſea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almoſt a lump of fat, and eſteemed very delicious. It is ſaid that this iſland abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought, as are the quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

The Iſle of Man contains ſeventeen pariſhes and four towns on the ſea coaſts. Caſtle-town is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of its government; Peele, which, of late years, begins to flouriſh; Douglas, which has the beſt market and beſt trade in the iſland, as well as the richeſt and moſt populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the ſea; Ramſey has likewiſe a conſiderable commerce, on account of its ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds excepting the north-eaſt. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how conveniently this iſland is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers, which it was till within theſe few years, to

the inexpreſſible prejudice of his majeſty's revenue ; and this neceſſarily leads me to touch upon the hiſtory of the iſland.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas which I have before mentioned, this iſland was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected, from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great-Britain and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory ; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a ſpirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſland; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Edward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland, and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhopric, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the crown of Great-Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms and the iſland from the Athol family, and the bargain was completed by 70,000 l. being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered, and the king has now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the dukes formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, alſo, retain many of their antient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The king has now the nomination of the biſhop, who is called biſhop of Sodor and Man ; and he enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers, his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony. The eccleſiaſtical government is well kept up in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtament and Common Prayer Book have been tranſlated into the Manks language. The natives, who are ſaid to amount to above 20,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The better ſort live

live in ſtone houſes, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they may have occaſion for from other parts. Before the ſouth promontory of Man, is a little iſland called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiq ary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments of antient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are ſometimes dug up, and ſeem to indicate the ſplendor of its antient poſſeſſors.

I forbear to mention in this place the iſles of ANGLESEY and WIGHT, the firſt being annexed to Wales, and the other to Hampſhire. Alſo the SCILLY ISLES, or rather a cluſter of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part.

In the Engliſh channel are four iſlands ſubject to England; theſe are Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coaſt of Normandy than to that of England, are within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernſey, ſeven leagues; and between the ſame and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY was known to the Romans; and lies fartheſt within the bay, in forty-nine degrees ſeven minutes north lat. and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, eighteen miles weſt of Normandy. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs, the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land in its midland part is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine; and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild-fowl almoſt of every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length, but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was

here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve pariſhes. The capital town is St. Helier, which contains above 400 houſes, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recognize him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity, but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil adminiſtration reſts with a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which is as it were a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half, where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; but has only ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernſey, having one a-piece. Though this is a much finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable, becauſe it is not ſo well cultivated, nor is it ſo populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants ſpeak French: but want of firing is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Caſtle, the other Caſtle-Cornet. Guernſey is likewiſe part of the antient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet, otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. This iſland is healthy, and the ſoil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life. The inhabitants of the three laſt mentioned iſlands are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four iſlands is that of the church of England, though formerly the inhabitants were Calviniſts.

End of the FIRST VOLUME.